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AUTHOR Lautamatti, Liisa, Ed.; Lindqvist, Pirkko, Ed.
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ABSTRACT

This collection of articles deals with various aspects of the role of the language laboratory in language teaching, concentrating on laboratory teaching methods and materials. Topics range from evaluation of existing materials to the planning of courses and self-instruction systems, and include suggestions for the building up of a sound-library and using it for a wide range of purposes. The following articles are presented: (1) "Practical Considerations for the Selection and Use of Taped Materials," by A. Fraenkel, M. Underwood and N.F. Whitney; (2) "Listening Comprehension: With Special Reference to 'English Listening Comprehension in the Economic Sciences' Compiled by Heikki Kokkonen and Marjatta Lehtinen," by A. Price; (3) "Long Live the Language Laboratory!" by E. Berggren; (4) "Selbststudium im Sprachlabor. Ein Versuch an der Wirtschaftshochschule Helsinki," by C. Tammisto; (5) "The Use of Self-Instruction in the Teaching of Listening Comprehension -- A Report on a Teaching Experimentation," by T. Sikanen; (6) "The Sound and Video Library: An Interin Report on an Experiment," by P. Riley and C. Zoppis; and (7) "The Language Laboratory in the Post-Audiolingual Era," by D. Mendelsohn. The first three articles offer theoretical and practical advice about preparing or choosing materials and organizing courses suited to the present emphasis on communicative needs of the learner. The articles by Tammisto, Sikanen and Mendelsohn treat the development of self-instruction systems and materials and the possibility of widening the use of the laboratory. (AMH)

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Kielikeskusuutisia

THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY:

METHODS AND MATERIALS

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Liisa Lautamatti
Pirkko Lindqvist

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PREFACE

As a continuation of a recently started series of special issues of Language Centre News, this collection of articles takes up various aspects of the role of the language laboratory in language teaching, concentrating on laboratory teaching methods and materials, but leaving aside problems such as the administrative status of the laboratory and its technology. The articles presented here range from evaluation of existing materials to the planning of courses and self-instruction systems, and include suggestions for the building up a sound-library and using it for a wide range of purposes.

A reappraisal of the laboratory and its uses was felt to be appropriate for two reasons. First, with the development of the teaching of spoken language skills with an emphasis on the communicative needs of the learner, earlier material may seem inadequate or in need of supplementation. The articles by Price, Fraenkel et al., and Enid Berggren offer theoretical and practical advice about preparing or choosing materials and organizing courses suited to the present requirements. Further, the increase of university level teaching of language skills for study or professional purposes in Finland at a time of decreasing resources has renewed interest in the development of self-instruction systems and materials and thus in widening the use of the laboratory. These points are taken up in the articles by Tammisto, Sikanen, Riley and Mendelssohn.

The editors hope that the present issue will offer encouragement and new insights to those involved in the development of language teaching.

The editors would like to express their gratitude to Ola Berggren, Roland Freihoff, Viljo Kohonen and Sauli Takala, for their help and co-operation in editing this issue.

Liisa Lautamatti
Pirkko Lindqvist

Anne Fraenkel, Mary Underwood and Norman F Whitney
Division of EFL
School of Language Studies
Ealing College of Higher Education
London

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE SELECTION AND USE OF TAPED MATERIALS

Teachers of English as a Foreign Language and others concerned with the organisation of EFL learning are often faced with the problem of choosing material for their students. Some teachers receive huge quantities of publicity material whilst others may find it difficult to get any information about what is available. Some are free to spend vast sums of money buying whatever they fancy, others are working within very tight budgets and are expected to buy material which will last for many years and cater for a number of groups of students. We hope that this article will help all would-be purchasers and users of EFL material to make a more informed choice within the limitations imposed on them by their particular circumstances.

The article deals with the selection and use of taped material for 3 areas of work:

(A) pronunciation
(B) drills
(C) listening

A. PRONUNCIATION

In recent years, an increasing amount of taped material specifically designed for pronunciation practice has appeared on the market, and teachers are faced with the problem of selecting from this quantity of material those tapes which are best suited to their own situation and the specific needs of the learners for whom they are responsible. The criteria suggested below cover the following broad areas:

1. Skills practised - receptive and/or productive
2. Choice of linguistic items
3. Language level

4. Meaningful v meaningless practice
5. Cost, style and speed of the recordings.

These criteria are intended as a general guide for the teacher in selecting materials; the sequence in which they are presented does not indicate any favoured order of priorities, and it is left to the individual teacher to assess the relative importance of each of the criteria in the light of their own teaching situation.

1. Skills

It is generally accepted that there are two stages in learning how to pronounce a language: first, a receptive or listening stage in which we learn to discriminate the sounds and patterns which are significant in that language, and secondly a productive or speaking stage in which we learn to produce what we have already learned to discriminate auditorily. Although in a sense these stages are chronological, with listening coming before speaking, they are also simultaneous, in the sense that there is a continuous process of correction and improvement as the learner is exposed to further models for listening. So the teacher will need to ask herself: does the material provide practice in both the receptive and the productive skills? It may be a useful exercise at this point for the teacher to analyse and describe in chronological order the procedures through which the student has to work in order to complete a unit of the course. This should make it possible to assess the balance between the two skills. If practice in one of the skills is minimal, it does not necessarily mean that the material must be rejected; other material may well be found to fill the gap. On the whole, it is the receptive skill which seems to be neglected, so any material which provides some form of ear-training should be looked at with special attention.

2. Linguistic items

Most published materials concentrate on one area of pronunciation: intonation, rhythm, stress, weak forms of words, word-linking, individual sounds, and so on. Very few courses try to cover everything. It is therefore extremely important for the teacher to find out precisely what problems the students have. The time available for pronunciation practice is usually very limited, so it is vital not to waste time on items with which the students have no difficulty. Most courses are comprehensive

and methodical, in that they deal exhaustively with all the possible problems within the chosen area; this means that even after deciding on a course, the teacher will find it necessary to use exercises from it selectively, excluding those which deal with non-problems.

3. Language level

An important consideration is whether the content of the material, and in particular the choice of structural and lexical items, is within the capabilities of the student. As a general rule, the items should already be familiar, since the purpose of pronunciation courses is not to teach new vocabulary or structures, and the inclusion of a mass of unfamiliar items is frustrating and discouraging, and also obscures and distracts attention from the point of the practice. If it is necessary to teach the occasional new word or structure then of course the material need not be rejected; but if the language level is very much higher than that of the students, then using it would almost certainly be counter-productive. Conversely, if the content of the exercises is restricted to a very limited number of items long familiar to the students, boredom will set in, and the results will be equally disastrous.

4. Meaningful v. meaningless practice

The influence of behaviourism on language teaching methodology resulted in a strong emphasis on mechanical comptetence, sometimes (or perhaps often) at the expense of meaning, and there is still a considerable amount of pronunciation practice material available which is virtually meaningless. The use of nonsense words is hard to justify, and isolated genuine words are also of dubious value. Conditioning may be a part of the learning process, but there is no doubt that contextualised material is easier to assimilate than material which is not. So the teacher should also consider what assumptions the material makes about how learning takes place, and whether the practice is meaningful or meaningless. There are, of course, degrees of meaningfulness, and material which is not particularly meaningful may not be entirely useless; it may, for example, be used in very small 'doses' for intensive practice of an individual student's problem, or it could be basis for a game which would then provide a sort of super-imposed context. Finally, even if the material is contextualised and meaningful, it is also important that the contexts should be ones that will be understood by, and of interest to, the students.

5. Practical consideration

There are a number of purely practical criteria relating to the cost of the materials and the style, speed and quality of the recording. Firstly, in addition to the price of the tape or tapes, it may also be necessary to consider whether it is essential for students to have a copy of the accompanying book, if there is one. Then, too, it is particularly important in the case of pronunciation materials that the recordings should be made by native speakers, who should talk at normal speed. Speech which is unnaturally slow will inevitably be distorted; strong forms will replace weak ones, contractions and elisions will disappear, the normal rhythm of the utterance will be changed, and the tape will not provide a model of fluent speech for the learner. Although it is arguable that native pronunciation can never be a realistic target for the foreign learner, nevertheless it should always be the model for listening. It may be felt that it is too difficult for learners in the early stages to cope with native speech at normal speed, but provided the lexis and structures are familiar, the utterances are fairly short, and adequate time is allowed for the student responses, there will not generally be any great problem. This leads on to a further point: too little time for the student response results in tension and frustration, while too much time leads to loss of concentration and soon to boredom. A pause roughly one and a half times that needed by a native speaker will usually be about right, though elementary students may need a little longer, and advanced ones can often manage with slightly less. Lastly, if instructions and/or examples are not clearly presented, the students may not be sure what they are expected to do, and again they will feel tense and frustrated, and the time spent on the practice may well be wasted.

Adapting other recorded material

The criteria discussed above relate mainly to the problems of evaluating taped materials specifically designed for pronunciation practice. Teachers often feel, however, that using such materials isolates pronunciation work from the mainstream of language learning, and increasingly, teachers are looking for ways of integrating pronunciation practice with practice in other skills. One way of doing this is to build exercises based on materials designed for other purposes. This technique is illustrated in the following example, in which a section

of a dialogue designed to give practice in listening comprehension and the use of colloquial English in realistic situations, is adapted to provide ear-training which develops the learner's awareness of the implications of various intonation patterns. The extract is from Realistic English Book 3 by Abbs, Cook and Underwood, and the type of exercise is based on Active Intonation by V J Cook.

Listen to the dialogue and answer the questions.

Mr Evans They're all the same, these politicans.

Does Mr Evans approve of politicians, or is he suspicious of them?

(Pause)

He's suspicious of them.

Giles I think he was to emphasize the idea of planning - economic planning, I mean.

Mr Evans Goodness knows where you get your ideas from, my boy.

Does Mr Evans approve of Giles' ideas, or does he disapprove?

(Pause)

He disapproves.

Christopher No, he's right, Mr Evans. You can't have a high standard of living without economic planning.

Mr Evans Well, of course the economy's got to be strong, but government planning won't make it strong.

Does Mr Evans sound critical, or cold and reserved?

(Pause)

He sounds critical.

Giles Oh!

Mr Evans Planning is killing free enterprise.

Christopher Free enterprise!

Does Christopher approve or disapprove of free enterprise?

(Pause)

He disapproves.

Mr Evans You need to give free enterprise plenty of incentives. Competition in a free market - that's the thing!

Giles There is such a thing as a social conscience, you know. In a free market, you have a free-for-all and it's the poor who suffer.

Mr Evans Rubbish! The Welfare State takes care of them, and it's my money that pays for the Welfare State ...

Is Mr Evans indignant, or does he sound friendly?

(Pause)

He's indignant.

Christopher	Yes, but don't you see -
Mr Evans	Do you know how much I have to pay in taxes? There isn't any point in working these days. It's natural for people to want higher wages.
Giles	I think your point of view is not only materialistic, it's selfish.
Mr Evans	It's not; it's common sense.
Mrs Evans	I've made some nice fresh coffee.

Does Mrs Evans sound cold and reserved, or does she sound friendly and soothing?

(Pause)

She sounds friendly and soothing.

The original tape can be modified by copying it and inserting spoken questions and answers at the appropriate points, or more simply, the student can be provided with a worksheet containing the questions, the answers to which may be discussed afterwards, providing this does not infringe copyright. Many recorded dialogues are suitable for using as the basis of a hunting exercise, in which the student is required to pick out examples of eg weak forms of auxiliary verbs, intonation patterns denoting a specified attitude, one particular sound, special stress, and so on. The following dialogue, from Realistic English Unit Seven, contains six examples of linking 'r's; the first one is marked in the text, and the student may be asked to listen carefully to the tape and identify the other five, and then to go on and practise them in the exploded version of the dialogue. The advantage of this type of exercise is that there is no need to modify the original recording.

Section One

Christopher	It's really quite impossible!
Mrs Evans	What is, Christopher?
Christopher	Trying to live on my grant.
Mrs Evans	You'll have to cut down on your expenses! That car of yours is unnecessary, for a start.
Christopher	No, it isn't; I need a car.
Mrs Evans	You really ought to use your feet a bit more. It's people like you who make the roads so dangerous!
Caroline	That's not fair, Aunt Margaret. Chris's car is splendid!
Mrs Evans	I never had a car when I was your age, young lady. Young people nowadays expect too much.
Christopher	You're not being very helpful. I need money!

Mrs Evans Well, sell the car, then.
Christopher No, no, a thousand times no!
Mrs Evans Then why don't you get a job?
Christopher Now, that is a good idea!

Drills, too, will often provide useful practice in the productive skill, since the student responses generally involve the repetition several times over not only of a structure, but also of an intonation pattern, so pre-lab. preparation for structure drills should also draw attention to features of pronunciation which the student might otherwise not notice.

In this drill from Realistic English Unit One, the ostensible point of the practice is the regular form of the simple past in which the ending '-ed' is pronounced /t/. However, the response uses an intonation pattern consisting of a rise followed by a high fall, a tune which is commonly associated with protest and complaint. This attitude is well contextualised by this drill, and the tune is used consistently throughout, so, providing the student is aware of the implication of the tune, the drill provides an additional bonus of extra intonation practice.

Drill 12

Finish your work now.
But I finished it yesterday.

Wash your hair now.
But I washed it yesterday.

Fetch the paper now.
But I fetched it yesterday.

Conclusion

The movement today is towards the use of more and more authentic material, and it seems likely the writers of pronunciation materials will follow suit. It would be a natural and logical development for such material to be integrated increasingly with other language practice, and it is to be hoped that this will happen. In the meantime, there is much that individual teachers can do to modify and adapt other recorded materials, without involving themselves in a heavy burden of extra work.

B. DRILLS

In many cases, drills are the mainstay of language laboratory work. The reasons for this are both theoretical and practical. Language labs are, after all, most heavily indebted to the theoretical constraints of structuralism and all its ramifications. These include the assumptions of behaviourist rather than of cognitive theories of learning; the idea that language learning is separable into the four skills listening, speaking, reading and writing; and the use of imitation as a desirable student activity. And in practical terms, drills do tend to play a significant role in the taped sections of any well known EFL course - even contemporary, functional courses.

This is not to say that drills need be boring, mechanical and demotivating. Any EFL teacher knows that drills can be all of these things. But if that is the case, the teacher should try to appreciate why the drills are boring; why they are demotivating. If the teacher (and the student) can find this out, then it becomes possible to distinguish between good drills and bad drills. It is much better to be able to make such distinctions, rather than simply be able to say that all drills are boring and mechanical.

The following list of components and variables of drills is designed to help the teacher, and in some cases the student too, to decide whether a particular drill or set of drills is useful in any particular situation. It is well known that some teachers are fanatically committed to drills, but that others want to throw all drills out of the window. The following analysis is intended to give these two groups of teachers some common ground for useful discussion.

The analysis of the components and variables of drills will refer to a sample drill, taken from Book 1 Unit 1 of Realistic English (B Abbs, V Cook M Underwood, OUP London 1967). The authors of this article would like to thank the authors of Realistic English for giving their permission to quote from the course, and for allowing us to select from the whole range of drills within the course just one for comment and analysis. The intention here is merely to provide real, extant examples of the different components of EFL drills. Realistic English includes a great variety of drill material, and it is a rich source for those teacher trainers, teachers and students who are interested in the study of drill typology.

The nine components dealt with in this analysis are

1. Instructions
2. Exemplification
3. Phasing
4. Performance
5. Stimulus
6. Response
7. Item Relationship
8. Sequencing
9. Language Learning Skills

Note: M = man
W = woman

(SAMPLE DRILL)

Drill 3 M Now here are some questions about numbers.
Listen first please.

M What's two and two?
W Two and two are four!

M What's six and three?
W Six and three are nine!

M What's four and five?
W Four and five are nine!

Now you can answer the questions. Are you ready?

M What's five and seven?
Gap
W Five and seven are twelve!

M What's six and eight?
Gap
W Six and eight are fourteen!

M What's eleven and twelve?
Gap
W Eleven and twelve are twenty-three!

M What's four and seventeen?
Gap
W Four and seventeen are twenty-one!

M What's fifteen and fourteen?
Gap
W Fifteen and fourteen are twenty-nine!

M What's nine and three?
Gap
W Nine and three are twelve!

... (14 + 24) (30 + 40) (40 + 50) (20 + 40)

1. Instructions

The instructions in any drill can be varied in at least five ways:

1.1 there may or may not be any instructions

1.2 the instructions may prove to be clear or unclear to the students

1.3 the instructions may or may not explain the point of the drill

1.4 the explanation may be 'technical' or 'not technical', in that it may or may not use grammatical or linguistic or phonological terminology

1.5 the instructions may be given at different points in the drill: nearly always at the beginning, sometimes after the example items, and sometimes during the drill itself (eg towards the end of the drill) or at the end (eg 'That is the end of Drill No. 3').

In our sample drill, there are instructions; they are clear; they explain the point about numbers, and this explanation is not technical, in the sense that the explanation does not involve itself with other relevant issues - for example, the use of the present simple being practised in the drill. The instructions are given at the beginning of drill, after the examples, but in no other place.

Naturally, teachers and students have different opinions about the form and function of instructions. In evaluating instructions, several factors are involved: the sophistication of the students' knowledge of grammar, for example, or the relative difficulty of the drill, or the extent to which the students have been prepared for a particular drill. Even so, it should go without saying that instructions are best when they are given clearly, explicitly, and at different points in the drill. In the case of a long drill, for example, it is very useful to number the drill items, to tell the students how many items there are, and to remind them towards the end of the drill that there are only two or three more items to do. In this way, students have an idea of how long the drill is going to be. Alternatively, the teacher can decide to severely edit long drills: eight or nine items in one drill may be about as much as your students want to take.

2. Exemplification

Nearly all drills provide examples for the students to listen to. The examples vary according to

2.1 their number

2.2 their possible reappearance as the first items in the drill proper

2.3 their reliability

In the sample drill, there are three examples. They appear only as examples, and they are not repeated as the first three items in the drill proper. The examples give clear, correct illustrations of what is coming in the drill, therefore they are reliable.

If students are well prepared for drill work, or if the work is easy for them, then two examples before the drill proper should be enough. If the students are not well prepared, or if the material seems to be difficult, then three examples might be more useful. And whether the drill gives two or three examples, it is often very encouraging for the student to have the examples repeated as the first two or three items in the drill proper. This gives the students confidence, since they have heard the correct responses already. Entirely 'new' material in the first item of the drill proper can, in some cases, delay the student's responses unnecessarily. And whether the examples reappear in the drill proper or not, they should be reliable: that is, they should illustrate the point of the drill, and the drill proper should not set off in a direction not signposted by the examples. Regrettably, some examples in some drills are not reliable. For instance: if the examples give:

Stimulus: Michael likes bread. John likes bread.

Response: Both Michael and John like bread.

then the student does not want to be faced with a drill item that, in its 'correct' taped response, reverses the order of 'Michael' and 'John'. But this sort of reversal and alteration does occur, and unless the students are somehow prepared for such changes, they find them unsettling.

3. Phasing

Drills may be either

3.1 two phase: tape stimulus + student response

3.2 three phase: tape stimulus + student response + tape reinforcement of the correct response

3.3 four phase: tape stimulus + student's first response + tape giving the correct response + student's second, and this time fully correct response.

In the sample drill, the items are three phase. In each item, the tape gives the correct response.

The phasing component of a drill can prove to be the drill's most positive or most negative feature. If the material is too easy for the students, then four phase or even three phase material can waste a lot of time. On the other hand, if the material seems to be rather difficult

for students, then two phase and especially three phase material can be extremely frustrating, because students feel rushed and harrassed by the tape. Usually, two phase work is best suited to listen and repeat exercises of a fairly straightforward nature. Three phase work is desirable when the students feel that the level of difficulty is just right for them. Four phase work is appropriate in those cases where the students feel that the material is both challenging and interesting. There is no doubt that there is some three phase material that is too difficult for the student, and in these cases the drills can be counter productive. Also, there is some four phase material that for some students represents little more than a waste of their time and energy. The teacher can be prepared for both eventualities: three phase material that should be four phase material for a particular group of students can be re-recorded by the teacher as four phase material. Conversely, four phase material can be edited into three phase work, or the students can be asked to look upon the fourth phase as an opportunity to repeat the answer twice more, or as a chance to practise their pronunciation and intonation.

4. Performance

The ways in which drills are actually performed are many and various, but the two main variables affect:

4.1 the speed at which the material is spoken

4.2 the degree of realism and naturalness with which the material is spoken.

In the sample drill, both the speed and the sense of realism are typical of traditional EFL materials. Quite simply, this means that some people will find the speed of delivery too slow, some will find it just right, and some will find it too fast. On the question of realism, some people will find the delivery extremely unreal, others will find the performance acceptably realistic for teaching purposes, and some may find that the actors are extremely effective.

Assessing the performance element of any drill is extremely difficult. First, different people have different opinions about desirable speeds and about degrees of realism. Broadly speaking, a lot of native speakers of English tend to find EFL drill performances rather slow, and extremely stagey: drills are almost a separate variety of English - 'EFL drills English!' Non-native speakers on the other hand may not find the

performances so offensive. The same drill can be regarded very differently by different people. In practice, it is often unreasonable of the native speaker to accuse the drills of being over performed, or of being hyper-correct middle class bourgeois English. Many foreign students do not think this, and they need the security of a slow, clear delivery, even though it is from some points of view unnatural. Also, actors who record EFL drills will point out that there is not much more they can do with the material they get. There is some sense in this argument: drills do not, after all, represent the highest achievements of the creative writer. Even so, there is a growing tendency for drills to include different voices, different accents (they are not genuine, even then: they are 'put on' by the same sorts of actors who do all the non-regional, RP drills), and different rates of delivery.

5. Stimulus

The stimuli used in any drill can take several forms:

5.1 they can be language or non language (eg the noise made by a machine or an animal or a picture)

5.2 they can be real language or unreal language - though the distinction between the two is often a matter of opinion.

5.3 they can be constant - always the same sort of pattern - or variable - the clue in the stimulus can be disguised, or different in each item of the drill.

In the sample, the stimuli are linguistic, they are, taken in isolation, real language, and they are constant. In each case the linguistic form is interrogative; each of the stimulus questions make some sort of sense (admittedly, though, not a great deal, because one assumes that the students 'know' the answers already in their own language); and all of the stimuli occur in a regular, constant pattern.

Today, writers, teachers and students can afford to be much more demanding on this question of stimuli. First, there is no reason why the stimuli in any drill cannot be mixed: different voices, different ways of presenting the same problem to students; different grammatical constructions producing the same sort of response; more realistic and plausible contexts for each item; in short, there can be a good deal of variety in the presentation of stimuli. In the sample drill, the stimuli are proper and correct, but they are invariable. For a mathematically conscious group of students the stimuli could be as it were more 'difficult' - different voices posing more complex arithmetical problems, where the speakers are

lecturing, or coughing, or stumbling over their words. Or, for mathematically unsophisticated students, the stimuli could be varied functionally; eg 'Oh, I've made a mistake adding up nineteen and twelve' or 'This bill is wrong. It says four, nine and six are twenty one!' In these cases, the student simply has to catch the numbers, and to respond with the correct arithmetic, as in the sample drill.

6. Response

The response element in a drill can be varied in the same ways as the stimulus element:

6.1 it can require students to produce language, or to perform some less obviously 'linguistic' act, eg choose a picture, underline a word, or put two or three parts of a drawing together

6.2 it can require students to produce language that is real or unreal: though, once again, the distinction is a matter of debate in many cases

6.3 it can require students to produce a constant, or a variable sort of response.

In the sample, the responses are linguistic: students must say something, using numbers, and using the present simple in a particular sentence construction. The language required from students is real in the sense that it is English, but it is not very realistic in any sense other than the strictly pedagogic. Getting students to say 'Two and two are four!' is certainly a justifiable goal: but the justification is in terms of pedagogic expediency, rather than in terms of usefulness in real life. Finally, the responses throughout this drill require a constant form of response: always number A + and + number B + are + number C.

It is not possible to evaluate responses without consideration of the particular needs of particular teaching situations. The teacher might want to experiment with drills that require less obviously linguistic responses (eg filling in a chart, or drawing a diagram), but these sorts os drills require great organisational skills on everyone's part. Also, the teacher and students might want responses that are not simply pedagogically expedient - yet since the laboratory (and for that matter most classrooms) are somewhat artificial environments, the sorts of responses that are 'unreal' are in many cases unavoidable, and even desirable, especially if the students are the sort who will never be required to use English in the English speaking world. Finally, teachers might want the responses to be variable in some way: but this is extremely difficult to set up. Variable responses would have to be clued and cued

by variable stimuli, and students will find themselves listening to too many things at once. Constant, invariable responses can often be demotivating, it is true. But this may be because the drills in question are either too easy or (and this is often the case) too long.

7. Item relationship

Drills consist of a certain number of items: that is, of a certain number of stimulus/response pairs. The relationships between the stimulus and the response of any item is variable:

7.1 it can tend to be arbitrary and meaningless, and/or non-arbitrary and meaningful

7.2 it can involve degrees of repetition, and/or degrees of adaptation

7.3 it can practise any specific linguistic point deliberately, and/or accidentally.

In the sample drill, the relationship between each stimulus and each response is partly arbitrary and meaningless, yet partly non-arbitrary and meaningful. The sort of exchange 'What's six and three? Six and three are nine!' is arbitrary and meaningless in the sense that the question is not a very likely one in the first place, and the answer to the question is 'Nine', and not 'Six and three are nine!' On the other hand, the item does pose a stimulus question, and does require a response answer: to that limited extent, the item is meaningful - at least a good deal more so than the sort of exchanges

'Oxford Street!' 'Let's go to Oxford Street!'

'Paris!' 'Let's go to Paris!'

where neither the stimuli, nor the responses, nor their relationships are of much interest to anybody.

The arbitrary, meaningless nature of the sample drill is partly a product of the other two variables in the item relationship. Students are required to repeat words in the stimulus, and the drill is about the specific linguistic point, the 'universal truth' use of the present simple tense. These two features exert great pressure on this drill, and they force a wholly unnatural, and classically drill-like relationship between each stimulus and each response in all the items. The most influential factor seems to be the deliberate desire to have a drill on the present tense. This deliberate desire forces students to use some form of the verb to be (in this case are), and in order to get the student to use this form of the verb, the drill has to make use of numbers - by convention the standard illustrative context for 'universal truths'.

Clearly, this question of item relationship is an extremely complex one. Anyone who has tried to write and record drills knows how difficult it is to establish stimulus/response relationships that are meaningful, interesting and challenging. Also, anyone who has taught a variety of drills to a variety of students knows that there are some students who actually thrive on meaningless, repetition orientated drills. Some students get a sense of confidence through such drills, and some teachers feel that such drills give both the teacher and students an opportunity to master the various skills needed in order to cope with language laboratory work at all.

In practice, though, it may be necessary for the teacher to be at least aware of item relationships in particular drills. If the students react negatively to meaningless repetition work on specific structural points, then the teacher has to be ready to do several things. The item relationships could be rewritten. The strictly repeating element in the students' workload could be replaced by an adapting element - where the student has to do something with the stimulus, rather than just repeat it. Also, the teacher could disguise the deliberate intention of the drill, by telling the students to concentrate on stress, rhythm and intonation - rather than telling them to concentrate on, for example, one of the meanings of the present continuous. If teachers have neither the time nor the skill to do any of these things, then he can share their doubts about the liveliness of the material with the students, and ask them to take the material for what it is: just practice.

8. Sequencing

The sequencing of the items in a drill affects:

8.1 the number of items

8.2 the extent to which the items are connected to each other

8.3 the extent to which the items are related to an accompanying text.

In the sample, there are thirteen items, including the three illustrative items at the beginning of the drill. The items are connected to each other, but the connection is primarily linguistic: all the items are practising one use of the present simple tense. It is true that the items are all about numbers too, but there is no controlling context of situation, and there is no contextualising link between the thirteen items in the drill. Also, there is no relation between the drill and the accompanying text (a dialogue in the main part of the course), other than

a linguistic relationship: once again, this consists of one use of the present simple tense.

(Readers should note that in the case of Realistic English, it was the authors' explicit intention not to relate texts and drills in ways other than the strictly structural or linguistic. To that extent, therefore, the relationships between drills and texts in Realistic English are of a specific kind.)

There is no doubt that the three variables in sequencing are extremely important, and there is also no doubt that they directly affect student attitudes to drills. First, drills that have rather less than eight or nine items do not give students the opportunity to get into the drill. Also, drills that have rather more than eight or nine items run the risk of boring students. In other words, a lot of drills are too long. Secondly, drills in which the items are linked to each other in some interesting way are without doubt more motivating than those drills in which the items have no more in common than some grammatical point. In the sample drill, the combination of present simple and numbers could have provided a controlling context: eg shopping, or doing homework, or working out some appropriate calculations. Such a context would allow for a link between the different items, since two or three characters could have been working on the same problem throughout the drill. It has to be said, of course, that drills in which the items are linked do involve some form of artificiality, since it is unlikely that the same sort of sentence or response would be required eight or nine times in just one situation or conversation. But variety can be achieved by ringing the changes on the stimulus, so that the repetitious element of the drill is disguised somewhat. And (notwithstanding the explicit intentions of the authors of Realistic English) another way of linking the separate items in any drill is by relating the drill to its accompanying text. This text is normally a dialogue or a passage of some sort. In the drill, then, the items could use the same situation or the same characters that appear in the dialogue. In this way, the drill becomes less isolated from the main body of the course, and the students begin to see relationships of all kinds between the different parts of their courses.

9. Language learning skill

This component of drills involves

9.1 whether or not a particular, measurable 'language point' is being practised

9.2 whether or not the student is required to use any or all of the traditional language learning skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing

9.3 whether or not teachers and/or students need specific non-tape materials when working in the lab.

In the sample drill, a particular language point is being practised. As is the case with most laboratory materials, the point is a structural one. Other typical language points include phonemic practice, vocabulary practice, co-ordination and subordination practice and so on. In the sample, students are required to listen and speak, and they do not need any materials other than the tape in order to do the drill.

It is particularly this component of drills that is currently under conscious revision. Functional courses attempt to practise not only specific language points, but also awareness of different language uses: eg how to apologise, how to explain, how to describe. Contemporary drill material still has to make use of structural, phonological and lexical data, but the tendency now is to express such data in terms of real functional, plausible contexts. It follows from this that drills may well become increasingly multi-skills conscious. For example, students will be asked to listen and write (note taking); or to read and speak (oral summary); or to listen, read, take notes, and speak (following instructions for using an index, making rapid notes and then passing on the information over the telephone). Such activities, naturally, will require both teachers and students to make use of all kinds of materials at all times, even in the lab itself. The scope for development is enormous, especially in learning situations where multi media work is an already established part of the students' experience and taste.

C. LISTENING

Most teachers are unlikely to have the time, or even the interest, to record their own listening material for their classes. The technical problems of making good quality recordings, even from radio, let alone the difficulties of collecting 'authentic' speech, make it uneconomical and frustrating for teachers to depend purely on material which they have recorded themselves for their learners. Under these circumstances,

teachers must turn to published, or borrowed, sources, and must then find criteria against which to measure any potential piece of material. How important each one of the criteria will be will depend on the special circumstances in which the material is to be used, but it is hoped that the criteria below will offer some suggestions for the selection of listening material. They are listed and justified in relation to material to be used for the development of listening and comprehension skills, not in relation to material designed to promote active practice, although many of the points will be equally applicable to both.

The main points of concern which are dealt with in this section are:

1. content
2. delivery
3. activities for the learner
4. quality of production

1. Content

1.1 Length of passage

There is no doubt that it is diffucult to listen attentively to a long passage, say over five minutes, particularly when there is no visual stimulus to help focus the mind on the topic. On the other hand, exceedingly short passages, say less than 45 seconds, make it difficult for the listeners to get into the topic and are almost over before they have tuned in. This suggests that a short passage requires more preparation, so that the learners know what to expect, or alternatively the learners may need to listen to the passage a number of times before answering any questions on it. It is not necessarily true that the lower the level of the learners, the shorter the passage should be, but care needs to be taken not to de-motivate them by presenting them with too much too soon.

Within these extremes, the question of length is less important than other factors, and teachers will, of course, need to consider how much time they have for listening work, how much the students can do alone, and how much pre- and post-work they feel is appropriate to their students. The most important thing to remember is that we are concerned with helping our learners to listen to and process material and <u>not</u> with testing their memory.

1.2 Subject matter

In the early stages of learning, students have a large number of problems. Everything about a new language might be strange to them. They will not know what sounds might occur, how fast the language is spoken, what the pitch and intonation patterns are like, what pauses are used for, whether the speakers are pleased or angry, asking or telling. Because of all these simultaneous difficulties, students do not know what to expect when they listen and so cannot be ready to receive a message from what they hear.

They are anxious to be able to communicate as soon as possible, so there seems little point in exposing them to nonsense sounds to familiarize them with the new language first, when they will be more interested and motivated by hearing the language used in a normal situation.

It is important to use straightforward content in the early stages of learning, but this does not mean puerile content. There is a tendency to treat language students as less mature in thought because they lack mastery of the language, and this is as true in listening as in other skills. The content should be as interesting as possible, but it must be appropriate to the language level of the learners. This means that the level will, of course, be well above that which is expected in expression, because comprehension normally develops more rapidly than the ability to speak or write.

2. Delivery

2.1 Style of delivery

Learners will be helped in coping with the difficulties of a new language if, in the early stages, they are presented with a straightforward delivery. Passages spoken in an uncomplicated way, with no great changes of speed, pitch, etc, are most suitable.

Listeners will have difficulty in differentiating between voices too, and so there should generally be no more than three speakers to recognize. It is best to avoid the use of speakers with strong regional accents in the early stages, although it is unrealistic to go to the other extreme and use nobody but RP speakers.

It is not necessary to wait for learners to become very proficient before introducing them to varieties of speech and accent. They will not, of course, be expected to imitate these varieties, merely to understand them sufficiently to be able to communicate with a wide range of different

people, and so the plan should be to introduce such things as regional accents, poor enunciation, etc, gradually.

2.2 Speed of delivery

Consideration needs to be given, too, to the speed at which the passage is spoken. It is generally agreed that language learners can decode much more than they can encode; however, in any listening activity, the decoding process lags behind the speaker's encoding. At first, learners will feel the need to try to decode each word as it is received, but it is often necessary to receive a group of words and decode them all together. If the students receive too much material to process, they may misunderstand something early on, or miss something completely, and will then anticipate wrongly, if at all, what is going to follow. If we accept that listeners process groups of words and store them, then the most important part is the silence, the pause, between groups of words, rather than the actual speed at which individual words are uttered. Speech which is slowed down loses its natural rhythm, its elisions, and its intonation and so, whilst perhaps allowing learners to process each word more readily, it does not serve them well in developing their ability to listen to and comprehend normal spoken language. For these reasons, listening material should be spoken at normal speeds (and this will vary over quite a wide spectrum), but the pauses can be lengthened slightly to allow the processing of groups of words to take place. This lengthening of the pauses can sometimes be achieved by re-recording a passage and inserting a little more pause time in natural pause spots. (If teachers wish to use 'authentic' or natural speech, there is no point in re-recording an entire passage with actors or other trained speakers in order to produce the longer pauses, since more is lost in naturalness than is gained in speed by such an exercise.)

To sum up on this very important point of speed of delivery, the plan should be short segments of naturally spoken language interspersed, when possible, with slightly lengthened pauses.

2.3 Redundancy

In all language there is a certain amount of redundancy (ie non-essential matter). If this were not so in spoken language, the human mind would not be able to absorb and process information at the rate at which it is transmitted. In listening to a new language, students are faced

with the problem of differentiating between what is 'vital' and what is 'redundant'. They must endeavour not only to distinguish between vital and redundant words, but to recognize the value or otherwise of such things as intonation, tags, etc. It is, therefore, of utmost importance that the material they listen to must not be completely stripped of all redundant parts, since the mind simply cannot work on such language, even in the listener's native language, fast enough to cope with all it contains.

The problems for our students is frequently made worse by teachers of EFL and writers of EFL material, who, in an attempt to simplify the language, cut out much of the redundant matter, leaving heavily overloaded language which students cannot process as quickly as they receive it.

Listening can be made easier for learners in the early stages by giving them some indication before they begin to listen of what is going to be vital and what is redundant.

3. Activities

3.1 Things for learners to do

It is said that people 'listen badly', particularly nowadays when there is so much visual stimulus in our lives and the need to listen in order to get information is greatly reduced, particularly by television. When we talk about 'learning to listen', we really mean that we want people to learn to attend to what they hear and to process it within the framework of the new language. We are not concerned in language teaching with trying to improve the physical properties of the ear as a listening instrument.

If we want people to learn to attend to what they hear - to process it, to understand it, to use it, to react to it - then it is necessary to find listening experiences which will involve our learners and which will help them to be <u>active</u> listeners. It is, therefore, a good idea to use material which is accompanied by things that the listeners can do or is at least the kind of material from which activities can be developed.

Some activities will occur naturally. It may be that our students only want to recognise certain bits of information, they may want to remember the information, they may want to write down what they hear, they may want to know the attitudes of the speakers, they may want to respond to these attitudes and so on. It is, therefore, appropriate to use activities and exercises which build on these natural responses.

However, teachers may find that other, less closely related, activities are useful to their learners and there is no reason why these should not be included. In the early stages, students will be able to listen and point to pictures giving the correct answer, and to carry out 'listen and do' type exercises. They will soon be able to 'listen and list' and to answer 'true/false' questions. They will then go on, perhaps, to answering multiple choice questions and open questions, to paraphrasing and summarizing and gradually to presenting, for example, the two sides of an argument. From the earliest stages, they should be encouraged to recognize whether the speakers are, for example, friendly or angry, and to work out the relationships between the speakers, ie whether they are father and son, teacher and pupil, etc. In the past, the stress has been on comprehension of content and on finding the 'right' answer. Now we recognize the importance of understanding what is happening in a conversation as well as what is being said, and we acknowledge that the exercises found in books should not be used as test material, to check student learning, but rather as items which re-focus the students' attention on the passage and motivate them to listen again, paying attention to specific features.

3.2 Back-up Materials

It is often impossible to have the 'subject' of the words spoken present in the classroom at the time when we want students to listen. It would, for example, be impossible to have a large ocean liner in the room! However, a visual stimulus can be a great help to learners and so back-up material in the form of pictures, charts, models, etc, is a useful addition to the actual material to be listened to. It is unlikely that many teachers at present have facilities available to use moving pictures, but it is often possible to find still pictures which can act as cues or simply as aids to focussing the mind on the topic. It follows that listening material on very remote topics, which cannot be supported by pictorial or other visual matter, is inappropriate for language learners. Recent developments in video technology, which suggest that video tape may become as cheap as audio tape, may bring the use of video within the reach of many, many more people within the next few years, and this should open up exciting new horizons in language teaching and learning.

4. Quality of production

Finally there is little point in playing material to students if they cannot hear it clearly. Commercially produced material is usually of acceptable quality, but care should be taken to check that a tape which is quite clear to one listener sitting near the tape-recorder is also audible to a group in a classroom (if this is the intended use). It is not necessary to reject material which has background noise on it; indeed, some background noise is a useful indicator of the context in which the words are being spoken. However, in the early stages, listeners will have some difficulty in separating out the essential message if there is too much distracting background. Part of the problem of hearing is normally to be found in the learning situation - the actual acoustics of the room, interference from outside noises, the quality of the tape-recorder - but this only underlines the need for good quality sound on the recording itself.

A tape which is agreeable to listen to is motivating for our students and so the judicious use of music or other sound effects adds to the value of the tape.

There are many unexplored avenues as far as listening material is concerned and we, as teachers, will doubtless continue to debate such issues as the relative merits of 'authentic' versus other types of material, the use of listening to provoke speech, the extent to which simple exposure to listening improves the ability to listen and process and so on. We seem to be moving away from the four separable skills approach to language learning towards a more integrated approach, where the interdependence of the skills will be recognized and developed. This kind of approach is full of excitement for language teachers, but it will present us with new challenges both from the point of view of finding the kind of material we will need and deciding how we will organise our teaching/learning situations.

Meanwhile, the careful selection and use of those materials which are available to us is of great importance not only from the point of view of achieving our objectives in helping our students to listen effectively, but, more importantly, in developing in our students the desire to listen and helping them to experience the pleasure which can be derived from listening.

Conclusions

When selecting and using taped material, several factors have to be considered. These factors are essentially practical rather than theoretical, and they involve both the source of the material and the nature of the material.

1. The source of any taped material may not be immediately obvious - it may be EFL specific, or it may not. Most taped material used in classrooms originates from major EFL courses, and to a less extent, from other EFL project. Some tapes are just one part of a very large highly organised course, while others are more self contained. Still other tapes have nothing to do with EFL at all. Many teachers make use of commercial songs, or of radio broadcasts - anything recorded in English. It may well be that in a particular school or college, the students have distinct preferences for EFL-specific, or for non-EFL-specific taped material and this should be borne in mind.

2. Taped material may be consciously for the language lab rather than of the classroom, or of any other place. Teachers may well find that material which was originally intended for use in language labs does not work very well in the classroom, yet material which was originally intended for classroom use or even domestic use can work in the lab. This means that taped material designed only for the lab could be less useful than taped material designed for the classroom, or for individual use. This is certainly true in the case of drills: if drills are successful or useful anywhere, it is in the lab rather than in the classroom or at home. Conversely, a recording of a conversation, or of a news bulletin will be useful not only in the classroom or at home, but also in the lab.

3. Taped material often has a 'theoretical' source of some kind. This may be structural linguistics, or functions/notions, or whatever. Knowledge of theoretical sources helps the teacher to understand why taped material is the way it is, and how it is constructed. However, this is not to say that all taped material is self-consciously based on some theory or other. In fact, less and less material today is based on linguistic theory only, and more is based on pragmatic considerations relating to the development of language learning skills.

4. A point which radically affects the nature of taped material is whether the material is either authentic/realistic on the one hand, or non-authentic/unrealistic on the other. There is a lot of discussion

about the meaning of the term 'authentic', and most of the arguments refer to the language on a tape: the performance of the speakers, the realism of the dialogue and so on. Quite simply, when using taped material, it is more reasonable (from the authenticity point of view) to have on the tape something which, in the real world, is likely to be listened to. For example, a tape of someone telling a story is using a more authentic situation than a tape of drills, no matter how natural the recording of the drills might be. Also, a recording of a radio talk or of a pop song is a more plausible taped teaching aid than a recording of two or three characters speaking a dialogue from an EFL course, and pretending that the dialogue is a conversation! The interesting point here is that the radio broadcast may use very formal, slow, carefully articulated English, and the EFL dialogue may use contractions, regional accents, interruptions and so on. But the authenticity resides less in the performing than in the context of situation on the tape.

5. As to the nature of taped material, many of the practical considerations to be borne in mind have been mentioned in the main part of this article. A first set of considerations involves problems such as cost, length, speed (of the tape), the provision of an accompanying tapescript and/or teachers' book, the quality of both the tape itself and of the recording, general availability, and the more specific question of the availability or otherwise of both reel to reel and cassette versions of the material. Since taped material can be very expensive, and since it can represent a major commitment on the part of the school or college or university in which you are working, it is worth having a checklist of all such basic points when choosing, and especially when buying tapes. Experience is a great help here: purchasers and users who are unaccustomed to all the various forms which taped material can take are advised to profit from the experience of those who have already tried and tested different tape types.

6. Both teachers and students should be aware of what might be called the methodological nature of any taped material. For example: when the tape is being used, does either the teacher or the student, or both of them, require additional materials, such as an accompanying course book, or pencil and paper, or the teachers' guide, or slides? It is very frustrating to move from mechanical drill work to work which requires the student to read and write at the same time, unless everyone is fully prepared, and unless everyone has enough room in which to work!

Sometimes, the students need their work books or course books with them in order to do the taped exercises: sometimes, however, they do not. These seem to be very obvious questions, but they are important ones, especially in language lab work from the points of view of both cost and time.

Finally, the pragmatic teacher might usefully ask the simple question: do the students like the material being used? If they do, then there is no reason to hurriedly reject such material in favour of something allegedly more modern and fashionable. If, however, the students do not like the taped material being used, then the teacher has the job of finding out why. If the students find the material boring, and the teacher is unable to buy new material, then it might be useful to explain the rationale of the material to the students. There is no doubt that students know what they like and do not like to use and listen to, and teachers who respond to their views will be rewarded by having more motivated and successful learners.

Avril Price
European Editor for ELT
Oxford University Press[1]

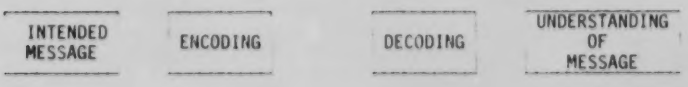
LISTENING COMPREHENSION: WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO "ENGLISH LISTENING COMPREHENSION IN THE ECONOMIC SCIENCES" COMPILED BY HEIKKI KOKKONEN AND MARJATTA LEHTINEN

It is my intention in the following pages to first outline current thinking and also my own view of the place of listening comprehension in the acquisition of a foreign language and secondly to discuss the above materials in the light of this thinking.

1. The message

To be able to hear a language and to recognize most of the words does not necessarily mean that the hearer understands the message which the speaker intends to convey. The hearer must know how to interpret the words he hears in order to grasp the message.

Figure 1. Speaking and listening. A communications engineering model.



When using his own language, the native speaker must, in the case of listening, know a great deal about what is likely to follow at any given point in a spoken message, i.e. he must know the possible sequences at

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1) Avril Price, M.A., Cert. Ed., is a former lecturer in English at Helsinki School of Economics.

The views expressed here are an extension of a lecture given in May 1977 at The Helsinki School of Economics and do not necessarily represent the views of my present employer.

6-79-65

all levels of language. In order to reconstruct a message he uses previous knowledge of the subject or the setting to build on. He is able to correct mentally any error made by the speaker and supply omitted words and phrases. In fact, decoding on the part of the hearer means determining what the message must have been. This factor is so powerful that when conflict arises between what the hearer thinks is likely to be the message and what actually reaches the hearer's ear, it is the first that wins. Until students of a foreign language have reached a certain level of ability in this interpretation strategy, they are going to be at a disadvantage in trying to comprehend satisfactorily what they are listening to.

Very few messages are transmitted in ideal conditions. Figure 2 shows the various stages between which communication can break down.

Unless we can teach the student the strategies he needs for interpretation, the message will remain for the most part incomprehensible.

2. The medium

There are many ways in which a message can be transmitted from speaker to hearer or from writer to reader. Figure 3 demonstrates this and it is with the mediums used in listening comprehension that we are most concerned. It is very important to consider just what type of spoken language our students are going to meet in a real world situation. In the case of specialist language (in this case, Economics) we have to be realistic in determining just what our students are going to need the language for. With reference to Figure 3 we could say that in a speaking situation he is going to need practice in taking part in a spontaneous conversation on economics (i.e. he will need to be able to interpret the other speaker adequately); he will need to be able to understand someone giving a brief, spontaneous resume of events in the economic world (eg. at a conference); he may need to know when reference is made to and quotations made from a written document or written report, i.e. "speaking of what is written"; he will have to be able to follow a speech or a spoken report which has been prepared beforehand in writing i.e. "written to be spoken". Although students of a general English course will be faced with the final category "to be spoken as if not written" i.e. plays, radio talks, etc. it is unlikely that the student specialising in Economics is going to find his subject used in this particular medium.

Figure 2. Functional models of language:
A social-psychological model
(From Bell 1976)

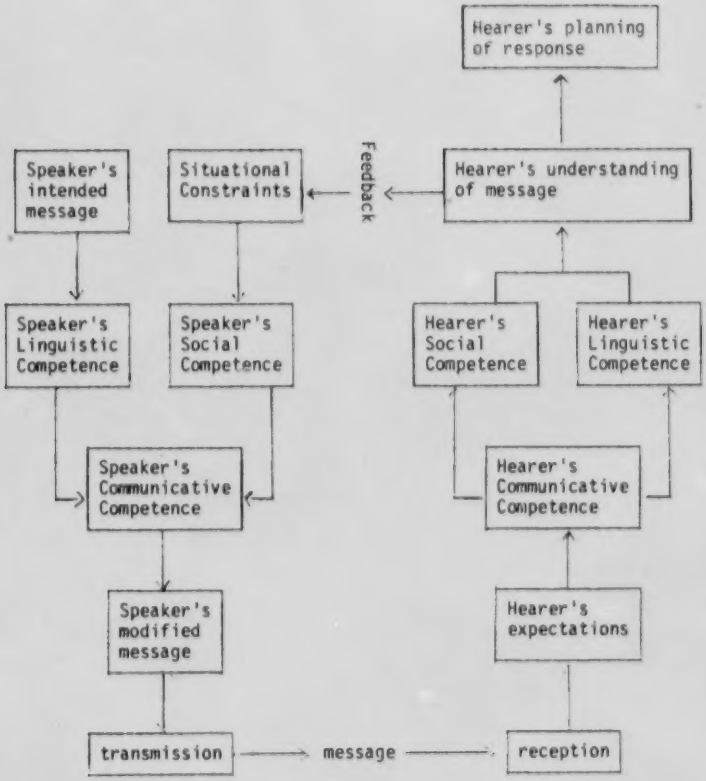
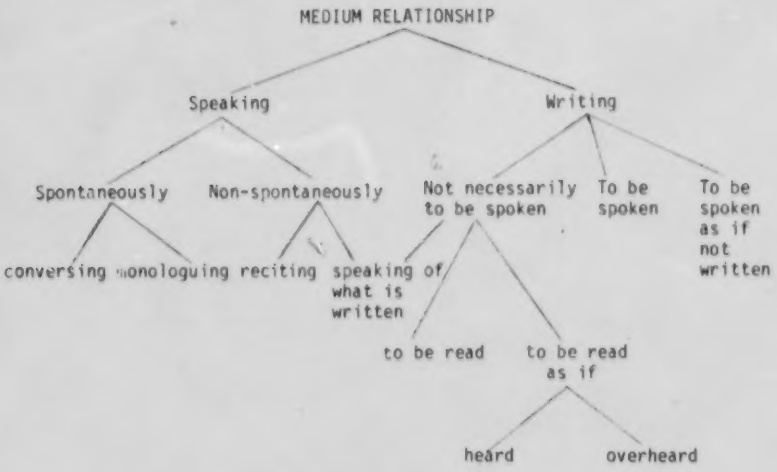


Figure 3. Types of Medium. (From Bell 1976)



3. Materials

There is still a great deal of listening comprehension which continues to use material which is written specifically for silent reading i.e. extracts from articles, books, written reports etc. or material written specifically for the purpose of listening comprehension but which follows the "written for reading" style. Most of these extracts are either read on the recording by one person reading the extract as a monologue or by several people alternating from one paragraph to the next. Although much of the vocabulary and terminology we wish to teach is incorporated into the pieces selected, the texts are no where near representing the average type of spoken discourse in a real life situation for which we are preparing the student. The mistake which has been made in the past is the belief that sufficient practice of vocabulary and structure equip the student to understand the spoken word. The easiest materials to refer to have been "authentic" written materials which have been selected and read

onto tape and followed by written or aural/oral comprehension questions. Unfortunately this does not contribute a great deal to our students' understanding of spoken discourse (specialized or general) for which such a course is supposed to be preparing them.

4. Listening and understanding

In order to make sure we are training the student in natural listening skills we should consider how we hear. Normally, in sustained communication the hearer loses between 20% and 40% of an utterance. This emphasizes the importance for the foreign student of understanding not only the syntactic system of the language but also the discoursal and cohesive systems through which the less than ideal speaker can guide the attention of his hearer to the message elements he considers most important.

Speech recognition does not take place in terms of minimal units. Listening is not a passive language skill; it requires an active interpretive skill. Our students need to acquire a mastery of the phonological and syntactic systems of the target language and through implication or extension, to get to grips with the rhetorical system. This need not be a productive skill but a receptive one on the part of the students.

The context of use may also be just as influential on the success of understanding a sentence. We have, in the past, been of the opinion that sentences are more difficult to understand if they are in the abstract, that a passive sentence is more difficult to understand than an active one, a negative more difficult than an affirmative. Only now are we beginning to realize that sentences are used to explain meanings in situations and that language allows for a range of syntactic expressions because they are called for in a range of communicative contexts. People prefer to describe certain types of situations using certain types of sentences or rather, utterances. This brings us on to the functions of language which will be discussed later in this paper.

5. Redundancy

Mastery of a language brings the learner the ability to exploit the redundancy of the code of the language. Unfortunately, many learners are so engrossed in hanging on to every word that another speaker utters that after a very short space of time he is left far behind puzzling out the meaning of a word he has not heard before while the speaker continues

what he is saying. As a result, the student misses the rest of the message and therefore does not understand anything he has heard. Experiments by communications engineers and adapted by Hockett in 1953 showed that spoken English, in terms of the signal transmitted through sound segments was approximately 99.9% redundant! This was before taking into account the predictability of the message, the context of situation, the kinesic signals of the speaker and the hearer's knowledge of the speaker. There is a great deal of interference in the transmission of a message and redundancy allows the message to get through, i.e. the utterance may be almost lost but the message is not. This interference is coped with by the native speaker who will supply the lost information. J. Green in Thinking and Language wrote, "Since predictability reduces the amount of uncertainty, it follows that the more predictable or redundant a language message is, the less information it will contain and the easier it will be to perceive and memorize". The foreign learner is unable to exploit this redundancy as he lacks knowledge of the constraining rules. As a result, the learner's immediate memory systems are overloaded and he is unable to retain enough of the signal to process it.

Speech is transmitted serially in real time but it is impossible to interpret it as it is received. Perception of the message can only take place when certain meaning relations are clear. Perception is a continuous process that must be completed before the received signal fades from the primary memory system. The foreign learner may perceive each individual word but be unable to make interpretive relations between the different parts of the message. Redundancy assists reception and the theory of "7 plus or minus 2" assists interpretation i.e. we can assimilate between 5 and 9 segments of information which is partially "digested" by means of interpretation into one or two by now more generalized concepts while more segments of information are added and similarly digested. Although at the end of listening to an utterance we can no longer remember the exact words we can remember very clearly what the message was. Listening comprehension has often tested the wrong skill in this particular area, namely "memory".

b. The form of comprehension questions

In the past, comprehension questions have asked for the exact words a speaker used at a certain point, a task which even a native speaker would find hard to perform. This particular type of question can only

be used within seconds of the learner hearing the utterance, while it is still in his immediate memory. If left until the end of a passage it is a pointless task. The students can become very good at this process but the teacher has no way of proving whether the student really understands his answer or whether he is a master of learning by rote.

7. Analysis of language

How do we help our students to recognize redundancy and to exploit it? As far as economic discourse in the English language is concerned, there has been no real study of the language situations our students are likely to meet but if we look at a study of what goes on in a lecture (Figure 4) we may find this kind of situation occurring at an international conference which our students are likely to attend -- "fairly formal situations... (where) one participant has the floor whenever he wants it". (Coulthard 1975.)

In Figure 4 we can see the structure of a lecture in Mechanical Engineering. In a lecture, different aspects of a "topic" may be introduced. Each aspect is covered in a section and each section consists of several "moves" i.e. progressive movement from one point of the discourse to the next. Each move is recognized movement from one language "function" to the next -- inferring, suggesting, referring etc. and these functions are realized by speech acts which are selected by the speaker because they are suitable for a specific language environment. In most cases, because certain acts are so aptly suited to a particular language environment, and because the functions they represent occur in recognized moves, they can be predicted by the hearer before the speaker utters them. Figure 5 shows a more immediate breakdown of the functions in the same lecture situation.

When listening to a lecture the student has to recognize the acts and the form of realization they take. He may have to perform certain activities other than just listening and understanding. The same could be said for our student of economics. He will not necessarily be following a lecture but he may be called upon to follow spontaneous speech on a topic about which he knows a fair amount and which will follow a fairly predictable set of moves and functions interspersed with redundant and repetitive speech. We need to teach the student to recognize a move and a function and the more common realizations as a matter of course so that they can concentrate on the actual message

Figure 4. Analysis of the discourse in Mechanical Engineering lecture[1]

In a lecture different aspects of a 'topic' may be introducted. Each aspect is covered in a section and each section consists of several 'moves'. According to our observation and analysis, a lecture in M.E. has the following parts:

LECTURE

Section (1)

- Move (A)
  - a) presentation
  - b) assumption (ob)
  - c) setting the objectives (ob)
- Move (B)
  - d) examining the objectives in terms of the assumptions
  - e) intending (approaching the problem) (ob)
  - f) inferring (resulted from d and e)
- Move (C)
  - g) focussing would-be problems (ob)
  - h) suggesting the ways to evade such problems
- Move (D)
  - i) referring to previous lectures or other subjects as the possible sources of information which would help the solution of the problem
- Move (E)
  - j) Summing Up: contrasting assumptions, objectives, taking into account the problems
- Move (F)
  - k) suggesting alternative ways of tackling the problems
- Move (G)
  - l) leading to definite conclusions (ob) not necessarilty stating them

Note (1) The occurrence of the moves and their sequencing can be illustrated by the following rule:

Lecture A B (C) (D) (E) (F) G

Note (2) The obligatory steps within each move have been marked by 'ob'.

[1] From Khan, Koç, Lotfipour and Price, 1976.

INPUT			TASK	OUTPUT	
ACTS	ACTIVITY			ACTIVITY	ACTS
HYPOTHESIZING ASSUMING STATING THE OBJECTIVES IF-COMMAND (WARNING) SUGGESTING INFERRING EMPHASIZING INTENDING REFERRING COMPARING AND CONTRASTING DEFINING DESCRIBING CONCLUDING CLASSIFYING EXEMPLIFYING LISTING SOLICITING MOVES	realizing and understanding	listening and understanding note-taking understanding and interpreting notation and diagrams	ATTENDING LECTURES	asking and answering questions interrupting where/when and how using notation	EXCUSE-ME ACT RESPONDING (TO SOLICITING MOVES)

Figure 5.

From Bellack et al 1966. The Language of the Classroom. New York, Teachers College Press.
See also Khan, Koc, Lotfipour and Price 1976.

i.e. the matter to be retained in the immediate memory or to be consigned to the less immediate memory. We want them to hear the text as a cohesive whole and to be aware of its coherence. The cohesion (i.e. how the message is put together) should be less conscious and the coherence (i.e. the meaning of the message) should be more conscious.

The areas of cohesion that students find most difficult in English are

a) the referential system (anaphora, cataphora, transition markers from one state of discourse to the next, logical connections).

b) lexis (and especially idiom and nominalized groups eg. "He wrote the book ..... nominalized: "The writing of the book ....")

c) phonology (elision, reduction, intonation, regional accent).

8. The need for authentic language

For these reasons it is necessary to work as closely as possible with authentic speech in order to train the student's perception of the linguistic features essential for easy interpretation of a speech chain. The elements which we wish the student to be aware of almost subconsciously should first be overtly taught. In other words, we have to teach the student how to listen. It is pointless to play tape after tape without first training the student in listening skills because very few students can teach themselves. The student has to be told how to predict from intonation and from the occurrence of certain items in the discourse as Wilga Rivers says, "... he must learn to recognize clues to question form, negation, co-ordination, purpose and develop a technique for extracting meaning immediately and directly from the foreign language text without relying on translation or identification of lexical items above to give the meaning". When these skills have been developed the student can discard them to the subconscious while concentrating on the message or the same message carried by a new lexis.

9. Listening comprehension within the syllabus

Listening comprehension should never be taught in isolation; it should be integrated with other skills so that information from listening can be transferred to another skill or vice-versa as long as the interaction

of skills represents the student's needs in the real world situation. Questions, by tradition, have always followed listening and reading comprehension. It has been proved, however, that students can acquire a skill at answering such questions without understanding the text. For this reason, as well as fulfilling the needs of the students, post-listening exercises should allow for transfer of learning rather than a memory test. The recalling of the exact words heard is unnatural for a native so we should not expect a foreigner to be able to do it.

One major point we have not yet considered here is that listening comprehension in a laboratory (or a classroom) is depriving the student of all the visual information (i.e. kinesic and gesture) that only the blind person is deprived of in normal, extra-classroom use. There is much to be said for the use of the video here. It may be argued that telephone calls and radio programmes put the listener in a "blind" position but these modes have forms of presentation and strategies to help the native speaker quite different from every day conversation. We and the student should be aware of this. Every listening comprehension piece should be considered individually before deciding what is the most useful aspect in it for training the student. The text should certainly not be an end in itself.

10. Selected materials - an appraisal of "English Listening Comprehension. Economic Sciences" by Heikki Kokkonen and Marjatta Lehtinen.

The materials consist of twenty texts on various aspects of economics. They are accompanied by a recording of the texts presented in the student's book. The student's book consists of vocabulary lists to be prepared before studying the next text, then the text followed by comprehension questions. At the back of the student's book is a section of exercises. There is a teacher's book which shows how the materials should be used and also how the exercises should be selected as well as the keys to the exercises.

The texts have been selected so that they cover a wide variety of economic aspects but the over-riding weakness in their selection is that the material is overwhelmingly taken from written sources eg. Business Horizons Vol. XVI No. 3 or TIME. This is unfortunate for as regards listening comprehension and research, outlined earlier in this paper, the materials bear little relation to the learning needs of the student in a listening situation. Certainly, the materials bear very little

similarity to the language he is going to hear in the real world. As a written selection, the material is excellent and could quite comfortably be used in translation/business language classes and many of the exercises would also lend themselves very well to this mode.

The phrase and word lists that the students are provided with before the lesson also contain the Finnish translation. In fact, translation is used throughout the exercises as well. This is a pity as the whole idea of listening comprehension is to get the student to think and react in the foreign language and not to have to resort continually to translation. The phrase lists could have been abandoned if the materials had been graded in such a way that each new text recycled material already taught earlier in the course so that the students would be able to grasp the meanings of new words in context or be taught them by means of following exercises. Learning new words and phrases in isolation has very little relation to what is known about learning strategies. Preparatory work could even take the form of an introductory reading passage or exercise.

The idea to instruct teachers to play the tape through once and then in sections with the questions following immediately is a good one. This prevents the students from having to resort to memory rather than understanding. The idea to also vary the type of question is both motivating and stimulating and the use of Finnish for the multiple choice questions or short written answers is excellent as at this point it is just a check on the student's understanding and involves transfer of learning rather than a direct translation situation.

Generally, the timing of each section of questions and listening to the texts seems to remain in the hands of the teacher. There seems to be very little allowance made for the individual student to progress at his own speed and it is difficult to imagine the materials in their present form being suitable for self-study.

The exercises follow the questions in being presented with variety. It may, however, be questioned as to whether many of the exercises selected are directly related to the skill of listening, even though most of the exercises do have their source on tape which entails the student having to listen before he can complete the exercise. Perhaps the strangest feature of these exercises is that they very rarely relate to any of the texts used and cannot always be said to relate specifically to the composition of economic discourse. It is difficult to understand why the authors, with such a rich source of material in their selected texts, have failed to exploit it in any way at all. A whole wealth of material

in which the students could become familiar with the difficult areas of cohesion in texts is completely neglected. Cohesion is dealt with in the last two or three exercises and there is a brief explanation about the subject of cohesion at the beginning of the student's book but this is barely enough for the student to really get to grips with this very difficult and necessary area.

Pronunciation and stress exercises involve listening and identifying minimal pairs or the stress of substantive or adjective forms of the verb, the selection of words having very little relationship with their frequency in economic discourse. Similar exercises follow dealing with "word families", the stress of nouns and verbs and word stress. In another exercise the student is asked to listen to sentences containing different stresses and to match them with a Finnish translation given in the book. This would have been much more useful if the content of grammar and lexis couls have been allied to the text heard earlier in the unit.

Practice of strong and weak forms takes the form of identifying uses of a word in its strong and weak forms. There are one or two discrepancies which creep into this area of the exercises, eg. the use of them in:

a) He told them but not me (strong)
b) Tell them to come soon (weak)
c) Mary wasn't there but I was (strong)
d) What was she saying? (weak)

In fact, although the student hears these sentences on tape, it is just as likely that in real life he will hear other variations on these sentences such as:

e) Mary wasn't there but I was
f) What was she saying?

Not only do we have stress therefore but intonation as well and as a result the emphasis of meaning in the sentences chance. Because this is such an important aspect of spoken discourse, much more time and space should have been given over to stress and intonation based on authentic materials.

Shortened forms such as he's, I'd etc. are practised, the student hearing a sentence in which the shortened form is heard and then has to be identified as he has or he is or I would etc. This is a good set of exercises and it would be even better for the student if certain exercises could have followed in which this knowledge could have been subconsciously used rather than overtly drilled.

Many of the gap filling exercises involve the filling in of prepositions or verb forms which in a listening comprehension practice seem rather out of place. These are more usefully practised in an ordinary use of English session rather than taking up valuable laboratory time, especially when they are not derived from the original listening text. As in many taped exercises there seems to be some confusion as to the types of exercises best suited to the tape-recorder. The same applies to an exercise on synonyms, the synonyms seemingly to have been chosen on an ad hoc basis rather than their relevance to economic vocabulary. Obviously the authors are trying to make the student relate what he hears to another form of the same meaning in a different mode. Had the authors considered at this point to refer to the original text for synonyms and semantic strands throughout a text, a very valuable addition to exercises in cohesion could have been made. Exercise 4C is based on authentic speech, the student filling in parts of a conversation left blank on the printed sheet. This form of exercise is much nearer the type of exercise which have been discussed earlier in this paper. However, the exercises then move right away from this approach by introducing verb transformations (which is certainly not a listening comprehension skill) and multiple choice translation questions which could have been more satisfactorily structured as an exercise in deduction. Later in the exercises, the student again returns to more relevant exercises dealing with the structure of discourse. There is some practice in redundancy but again this is rather spoiled by the need to always translate into Finnish instead of requiring the student to perform a task related to the text. The question yet again occurs in an exercise dealing with connectors and discourse markers. Other more realistic tasks could be devised instead of asking the student to translate.

While acknowledging that these materials are ahead of anything else at present on the Finnish market one cannot help but feel a little uneasy at some of the principles and research behind the presentation of the materials. Only infrequently is the serious business of discourse really come to terms with and as mentioned earlier, the validity of the exercises is marred by the lack of authentic materials. Again, although some mention of the functions of language is made, the materials do not deal anywhere near deeply enough with the usage of English as opposed to use. In fact, it is difficult to establish just what the authors' theories of learning listening skills really are. There is a place for this selection of economic texts within the study of economic English but it cannot be

classified as listening comprehension if we are to really fulfil the needs of the average student of economics in an average "listening" situation. However, with very little adaptation these materisl could be used to improve the student's reading ability using the "shadowing" technique i.e. the student following at the same time as hearing the recording and then following this up with a selection of exercises. With this objective in mind, the texts selected and many of the exercises in the materials under discussion here would become immediately relevant to the student's needs as they represent exactly the type of written material with which he will be confronted throughout his career.

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Enid Berggren
Lappeenranta University of Technology

LONG LIVE THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY!

The vast majority of students who come to Lappeenranta University of Technology (L.U.T.) have previously studied English for seven or eight years at school. They have usually had plenty of opportunity for reading and even writing English but less opportunity for listening to spoken English and speaking English themselves. We English teachers at L.U.T. therefore decided that our main aims in the teaching of English should be to a) help students to understand spoken English better
and b) to help them to express themselves better orally in the English language.

Through trial and error we came to realize that project teaching best served these aims. We prepared material for projects on such subjects as Energy, Pollution, Work, Transport, Marketing, etc. It was decided that projects should last from three to six weeks and that during this time the students would be provided with:

a) reading texts on different aspects of the subject,
b) tapes for listening comprehension on different aspects of the subject,
c) oral-expression tapes on the subject,

and that

d) opportunities should be provided in the classroom for the students to talk freely on the various aspects of the subject.

The projects are usually started by having a general discussion on the subject in the classroom. Students are encouraged to suggest what aspects of the subject are important and to see the various aspects as a related whole. This can often be facilitated by the building up of a diagram or chart on the blackboard. The first reading text that is given to the students is a general one which teaches the vocabulary and concepts which will appear in the first listening comprehension exercise and will thus serve as a preparation for it. The listening material and the oral-expression programmes are presented in the language laboratory. The aim in giving the students listening material in the laboratory is not to test how much spoken English they understand, but to inundate them

with material for listening practice. The listening is thus an end in itself. Listening programmes last between 5 and 20 minutes and consist of a taped passage of spoken English to which the students can listen freely once it has been recorded onto their tapes. The students are given a duplicated sheet on which there are a few items of English vocabulary with either an English explanation of the meaning of the word or the Finnish equivalent. The items of vocabulary are those which occur on the tape and which the teacher thinks the students will not know. Words are not given if their meaning can be deduced from the spoken context in which they occur. Following the vocabulary list are a number of questions (either true/false/not-mentioned, multiple choice or open-ended) which the students answer whilst listening to the tape. The purpose of these questions is merely to stimulate intensive listening practice. Perhaps the best type of question is the open-ended one which elicits as an answer, an important point made in the taped discussion, etc. Sometimes, in addition to the type of question mentioned above, the students are given intensive listening tasks which involve filling in the missing words in sentences from the tape which have been typed onto their question sheets. There are usually a maximum of five of these sentences. We have found this particularly useful for helping students to understand "weakenings" in spoken English and also for helping them to recognize words and terms which they have hitherto only understood when seeing them in the written or printed form. Before the students start listening to the programme, the teacher reads out the vocabulary at the top of the question sheets so that the students will be able to recognize the words and phrases when they hear them on the tape. Students are encouraged to ask for the teacher's help whilst they are actually listening to the tape if there is anything they do not understand or recognize even after repeated listenings.

At the end of the listening practice period the teacher asks different students to give their answers to certain of the open-ended questions orally and to mark their own papers if the questions have been of the multiple choice or true/false/not-mentioned type. Another type of listening practice which we have found to be extremely useful, is simply to give the students taped material to which they can listen freely, taking notes as they listen. Again, the passage lasts between 5 and 20 minutes. No question sheets are provided. After a suitably long listening period (eg. 20 mins if the playing of the material takes 10 mins.) the

students and teacher go into a classroom where the teacher asks the students questions, in quick succession, on the passage they have been listening to. The questions are asked in such a way that the content of the passage the students have listened to is orally reconstructed in its entirety. At Lappeenranta University of Technology the language laboratory is always used for the administering of listening comprehension tests and so-called oral expression tests. We never test what we have not taught so the listening comprehension tests are always on the subjects of the project work. Sometimes, listening comprehension passages which the students have already worked on are used as tests, often with a new set of questions. In these cases, a new listening comprehension passage on one of the projects dealt with during the previous term or academic year is usually given at the same time, as the second part of the test. We use the same types of questions for the tests as we do for the listening comprehension programmes themselves, but we try to make sure that the questions are as good as we can make them and that two or more of us are fully agreed as to the right answers. If the open-ended type of question is used for tests, students are allowed to answer in Finnish because we are testing their ability to understand spoken English and not their ability to write English. If multiple-choice and the true/false/not-mentioned type of questions are used for tests, the answers are naturally quicker to mark than the answers to open-ended questions, but with open-ended questions "real comprehension" can be tested much more efficiently.

In Appendix 1 at the end of this article there is a list of the addresses from which taped material may be obtained for the making of listening comprehension programmes. Ideal materials for listening comprehension purposes are: - taped interviews, taped discussions, unscripted conversations, short talks on current affairs, news broadcasts etc. If possible, it is better to avoid having native speakers read articles from magazines, newspapers, etc. onto tape for listening comprehension purposes because this kind of material lacks many of the features of authentic speech.

Our main aim in giving oral expression programmes to the students is to give them practice in speaking English on those subjects which are being dealt with in the projects. The taped programme consists of the following:

1. A passage of spoken English of a much easier standard than that presented in either the listening comprehension programmes or in the reading texts.

2. The same oral passage again in sections. After each section there is a question which the students must answer orally. After the students have answered the question, they hear a model answer which they repeat. There are usually between 1 and 10 questions in this part of the programme. The purpose of this part of the programme is to loosen the students' tongues. In this semi-controlled teaching situation they usually find that they have ready answers and thus gain confidence for the more demanding task at the end of the programme. Listening intensively to the passage in sections also helps the students to remember its contents.
3. The same passage again in its entirety. The students take notes as they listen.
4. Three or four minutes of silence during which the students prepare a talk on the subject of the passage. They have duplicated work sheets, on which there are questions, to help them in this task.
5. The recording of the students' talks onto their own tapes. This usually lasts between 4 and 8 minutes.
6. An instruction to the students to take their tapes back to the beginning and listen to their talks critically.

The duplicated work sheets mentioned above sometimes have some items of vocabulary with English explanations but these are usually very few in number because the students are already familiar with the vocabulary after having worked on reading texts and having heard listening comprehension programmes on the same subject. The purpose in giving the students work sheets is to: a) provide them with questions which will help them recall the main points in the passage they have heard, b) to provide them with space for note-taking, and c) to give one or two items of vocabulary. The students are instructed to give a continuous talk and not merely to give isolated answers to the questions on their work sheets.

Oral expression programmes are made by the teachers and cannot be bought commercially. When making an oral expression programme the teacher must:
1. Write a simple passage of a suitable length. This is most often done by making a simplified summary of an article read in a journal, magazine or by summarizing and simplifying: a) a taped talk on the subject, or b) a relevant chapter from a book.
2. Write the tape-script. This should include the name and number of the programme for identification purposes, instructions to the students and the oral questions with model answers.

3. Prepare the students' work sheets with questions to guide them in the giving of their talks. An example of an O/E passage together with a model tapescript and (example of) a students work sheet are given in Appendix 2 at the end of this article.

It is advisable to have two voices for the recording of the tapescript - one for the reading of the passage, and the model answers, and the other for giving the instructions and asking the oral questions. The passage and the tapescript should always be read by a native speaker if possible. The tapescript is recorded with the help of a language laboratory assistant who could also edit the tape. In order to do this, the language laboratory assistant will need a copy of the tapescript on which the sections preceding each oral question are marked. (See model tapescript in Appendix 2.)

Shorter versions of oral expression programmes are usually administered to students in the language laboratory as oral expression tests in December and January. Again, oral expression programmes which have been given to students in connection with the project work are used. But in the test situation, the student hears the listening part only once, has three minutes to prepare his talk, and then records his talk onto his cassette. Teachers assess these oral tests by giving a mark for pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, content of the talk and fluency. For each of these aspects a mark on the scale 0-5 is given according to a fixed chart of criteria. All cassettes are assessed by two teachers who discuss each student's performance and then agree on a final mark. If there are considerable discrepancies between the opinions of the two markers they listen again to the student's performance and modify the marks they have given. These tests are especially quick to prepare and administer, but the marking of them takes between five and eight minutes for each cassette.

At Lappeenranta University of Technology language laboratory programmes are classified according to their subjects. All papers connected with the programmes are kept in hanging files and the file has the same number as the tape onto which the programme has been recorded. In our experience, this system of providing students with different reading materials, listening comprehension programmes and oral expression programmes on the same subject serves as an excellent preparation for oral work in the classroom.

At the end of the third and fourth year courses (there are no language courses for first and second year students except for remedial

courses) students are expected to be able to freely discuss with the examiner, any of the subjects which have been dealt with in the projects. The students who manage best in these "conversation" examinations are usually those who have spent most time in the language laboratory and who have had most practice in speaking English in the classroom.

All language laboratory programmes connected with the projects are freely available in the students' tape library so that they can work on them in their own time if they want to. We often hear teachers say that the language laboratory is most useful for students who are just beginning to learn a foreign language and who need to learn to pronounce it properly. But we find it excellent for advanced learners because programmes for students at this stage can be so much more interesting and intellectually stimulating.

So, say we, - Long Live the Language Laboratory!

Appendix 1

Sources of Recorded Materials for English Language Teaching

1. BBC Transcription Services
   Kensington House
   Richmond Way
   London W14 0AX

2. The British Council
   Ask for:
   Recorded Materials

3. Caedmon Spoken Word Records
   Caedmon Records
   505 Eighth Avenue
   New York
   N.Y. 10018
   U.S.A.

4. Ivan Berg Associates (Audio Publishing) Ltd.,
   Dept. 558
   P.O.Box 80
   Slough S13 8BN
   England

5. Open University Educational Enterprises Ltd.,
   12. Cofferidge Close
   Stony Stratford
   Milton Keyness MK11 1BY
   Endland

   In Finland:
   VISAPHONE
   Simonkatu 12
   00100 Helsinki 10

6. Seminar Cassettes Ltd.,
   218 Sussex Gardens
   London W2 3UD
   England

7. Sussex Tapes
   Educational Productions Ltd.,
   Bradford Road
   East Ardsley
   Wakefield
   Yorkshire WF3 2JN
   England

Appendix 2

Oral Expression Passage

WIND AND SUN BRING POWER TO THE PEOPLE

Henry Clews is an American aeronautical engineer who decided that he wanted to live off the land. He bought a 50-acre farmhouse, situated five miles from the nearest paved road, in the eastern part of the state of Maine. Henry had no intention of living primitively, without the comforts of modern life, so he asked the local power company for an estimate on providing him with electricity. [1] But the estimate of $3,000 plus a $15 a month bill for five years regardless of how much, or how little electricity he used, caused Henry to have second thoughts. He thought of the possibility of using a small diesel generator for generating electricity, but rejected it on the grounds that it would be expensive and a bad polluter. [2] After much careful thought, Henry decided to use a wind generator. And the device he decided upon was an Australian 2 kilowatt machine with three blades and a 12 foot diameter propeller. It was a modern, high technology version of the traditional windmill. [3] This method of generating electricity has been highly successful and when the wind is blowing it provides power directly for the Clews's household devices and also charges up 19 lead/acid batteries which can be used to provide electricity during calm periods when the wind doesn't blow. [4] The installation of the windmill cost Henry $2,800, but there is, of course, no fuel expense and there are no maintenance costs except that connected with the changing of the oil (one litre) in the gear-box once every five years. [5] So over a period of 20 years, the cost of this modern windmill will work out at about half that of a diesel generator.

Mr Carl Reines, a former Air Force officer, uses both the sun and the wind to generate electricity for his home in New Mexico. The house looks like an igloo in both shape and appearance. The electric power is provided by three wind generators, and the heating by solar collectors that warm 3,000 gallons of water in an outdoor storage tank. [6] In addition, there are 19 portholes in the surface of the hemispherical house which keep it much brighter than most houses, even at dusk. In all, the home uses about 70% less electricity than a typical house of the same size. [7]

Tapescript

Lappeenranta University of Technology

Oral Expression - Programme 34 E/295

WIND AND SUN BRING POWER TO THE PEOPLE

Look at the words at the top of your work sheets. Listen to how they are pronounced. Repeat the word after the model both times.

aeronautical	igloo
paved	portholes
estimate	hemispherical
propeller	blades
charges up	lead
installation	acid
maintenance	gear-box

Listen to the following passage carefully. You'll hear it twice.

----passage----

Now you'll hear the passage a second time but this time it will be interrupted by questions which you should answer orally. You'll hear a model after your own answer. Repeat the model please.

----First Section----

1. Who is Henry Clews and what did he decide to do?

(He is an aeronautical engineer who decided to buy a farm and live off the land)

----Second Section----

2. Why did Henry reject the idea of using a small diesel generator?

(He decided it would be too expensive and a bad polluter)

----Third Section----

3. Describe the wind generator that Henry finally decided to buy.

(It was an Australian two kilowatt device with three blades and a twelve-foot propeller)

----Fourth Section----

4. How can Henry get electricity when the wind doesn't blow?

(He can get it from the 19 lead/acid batteries which were charged up when the wind was blowing)

----Fifth Section----

5. What expense would Henry have in connection with his wind generator?

(He would have to buy one litre of oil once every five years)

----Sixth Section----

6. What does Mr Carl Reines use to provide electricity and heating for his house?

(He uses three wind generators to provide electricity and solar collectors for heating)

----Seventh Section----

7. What keeps Mr Reines's house brighter than most other houses?

(The 19 portholes in the hemispherical surface of the house)

You will now hear the whole passage once again. Take notes if you wish to do so.

----passage----

You can now have three minutes to prepare your talk on "Wind and Sun Bring Power to the People". There are some questions on your work sheet which may help you to do this.

----3 minutes----

Are you ready to give your talk now? Start speaking now, but remember to give your name and to press your "speak" button first.

----students' talks----

Now listen to your talk critically, noting both its good points and its weak points.

END OF PROGRAMME

Student's Work Sheet

Lappeenranta University of Technology
Oral Expression Programme 34 WIND AND SUN BRING POWER TO THE PEOPLE
WORK SHEET

1. Vocabulary

aeronautical = ilmailu-
paved = päällystetty
estimate = arvio
to charge up = varata/ladata
installation = asennus
maintenance = ylläpito
igloo = an Eskimo's home
portholes = small round windows
hemispherical = puolipallonmuotoinen
blades = terä/siipi
lead = lyijy
acid = happo
gear-box = vaihdelaatikko

2. Questions

1. Who is Henry Clews and what did he decide to do?
2. Why did he get into touch with the local power company?
3. What idea did he first have about generating electricity for his home?
4. Why did he reject this idea?
5. What did Henry finally decide to use?
6. Describe the device he decided to use.
7. How successful is this device?
8. What happens on days when the wind doesn't blow?
9. How expensive was the device and how expensive is it to run and maintain?
10. Who is Mr Carl Reines?
11. Describe his house.
12. What does he use to provide electricity for and heat his house?
13. Where are the portholes and what is their purpose?
14. How much electricity is consumed in Reines' house compared with other houses?

Christine Tammisto
Wirtschaftshochschule Helsinki (HKKK)

KONTROLLIERTES SELBSTSTUDIUM IM SPRACHLABOR

Das Sprachlabor der Wirtschaftshochschule Helsinki existiert seit 1963 und ist eins der ältesten in Finnland. Es wurde angeschafft, weil man den Fremdsprachenunterricht effektivieren wollte. Die Anregung kam aus dem Kreis der ausländischen Sprachlehrer der Hochschule, denen ein grosser Teil des mündlichen Sprachunterrichts anvertraut ist.

Vom Einsatz des Sprachlabors erhoffte man sich deswegen vor allem für den Unterricht in Aussprache, Intonation, Hörverständnis und Sprechfertigkeit eine grössere Wirksamkeit.

Heute hat das Sprachlaborzentrum der HKKK neben der Bibliothek, der Bildstelle und der EDV-Abteilung eine selbständige dienstleistende Funktion für alle anderen Institute, insbesondere für das Spracheninstitut. Die zentral gelegenen drei Sprachlabore haben insgesamt 80 Plätze. Sie stehen für den Unterricht und für das Selbststudium täglich von 8-20 Uhr (Sonnabends von 10-13 Uhr) zur Verfügung. Das Personal besteht aus einem Leiter, 2 Amanuenzen und drei weiteren studentischen Hilfskräften, die am Arbeitsplatz geschult sind und stundenweise arbeiten. Das Selbststudium läuft auf bestimmten Plätzen parallel mit dem Unterricht und funktioniert auf der Grundlage der Selbstbedienung. Das gesamte Bandmaterial steht den ca. 3000 Studenten und dem Personal der Hochschule zur Verfügung. Die Aufgabe des Sprachlaborpersonals besteht vor allem in der Verwaltung und Pflege der Anlagen und Bänder und in der Einarbeitung und Hilfestellung für Studenten und im Sprachlabor unterrichtenden Lehrer. Dazu gehört auch die Herstellung von Kopien und Aufnahmen.

Der Sprachenunterricht im wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Studium ist nach der neuen Studienordnung in 2 Fremdsprachen obligatorisch. Die Studenten müssen einen kurzen und einen langen Lehrgang absolvieren und haben folgende Sprachen zur Wahl: Englisch, Deutsch, Französisch, Russisch, Spanisch, Italienisch und Portugiesisch. Der Unterricht ist aufgeteilt in schriftlichen und mündlichen Unterricht. Der überwiegende Teil des mündlichen Unterrichts wird von "muttersprachlichen" Lehrern im Sprachlabor erteilt.

Das Schülermaterial der vorliegenden Arbeit besteht aus 34 Studenten, die das dritte und letzte Studienjahr des langen Lehrgangs in Deutsch, und zwar den mündlichen Teil, absolvieren und betrifft das Herbstsemester 1977. Der zweijährige vorangegangene Teil hat ausschliesslich als Kontaktunterricht im Sprachlabor stattgefunden. Der Grund ist vor allem in der Grösse der Gruppen (30 Schüler) zu suchen.

Vorkenntnisse. Die Studenten haben bei Beginn ihres Deutschstudiums an unserer Hochschule entweder den kurzen 3jährigen oder den langen 7jährigen Schulkursus in Deutsch absolviert. In den ersten beiden Jahren sucht man die Deutschkenntnisse der schwächeren Gruppe durch intensiveren schriftlichen Unterricht auszugleichen. Für den mündlichen Unterricht stand bis jetzt für den gesamten dreijährigen Lehrgang durchgehend nur eine Wochenstunde zur Verfügung.

Lernziele. Aufgrund der zu grossen Gruppen (30 Schüler) und der knappen Stundenzahl lässt sich das endgültige Lernziel - die Fähigkeit an deutschsprachigen Verhandlungen aktiv teilnehmen zu können - nicht ohne den Einsatz des Sprachlabors erreichen. Schon Teillernziele, wie einwandfreie Aussprache und Intonation sind nur durch zusätzliches Selbststudium im Sprachlabor von Anfang an zu erlangen. Auch in anderen Sprachen ist das Selbststudium in den Sprachunterricht integriert.

Kontaktunterricht im Sprachlabor. Ohne grundsätzlich alle Vor-und Nachteile aufzuzählen, die das Sprachlabor dem Lehrer an die Hand gibt, möchte ich kurz sagen, was zu dem Versuch geführt hat, den mündlichen Unterricht zu 70 % auf reines Selbststudium umzustellen. Im Sprachlabor kann der Lehrer alle Schüler gleichzeitig zum Sprechen bringen. Der direkte Kontakt zum Lehrer und die Kontrolle der vom Schüler produzierten Sprache bleiben aber unbefriedigend. Erhöht man die Kontrolle durch vorprogrammierte Antworten und ermöglicht damit die Selbstkontrolle durch den Schüler, dann wird die Sprache in ihrer Kreativität selbst betroffen. Dadurch kann eine eher sprechhindernde Reaktion entstehen, dass man sich in einer Situation sprachlich nur so und nicht anders verhalten kann (eine oft beobachtete Erscheinung bei der Einübung von sprachlichen Strukturen in Form von Drills). Dies ist m.E. eine der Ursachen für die augenscheinliche Ermüdung im Sprachlaborunterricht, nicht nur von Seiten der Schüler. Die Selbstkontrolle bei Aussprache und Intonationsübungen muss nicht nur aus praktischen Erfahrungen sondern auch aufgrund wissenschaftlicher Einsichten infrage gestellt werden. Die Hörfähigkeit

erwachsener Schüler ist nicht die von Kleinkindern, sondern durch die ausgebildete Muttersprache und durch die Aneignung der Schrift eingeengt. So besteht die Gefahr, dass sich erwachsene Schüler sprachfremde Laute und Intonation im Sprachlabor noch effektiver einüben.

Programme. Ein weiterer Grund liegt im Fehlen geeigneter Programme für den letzten Jahreskurs, die adäquate Aufgaben an fast fertige Betriebswirte stellen. Für den vorliegenden Kurs wurden die Programme vom Lehrer zusammengestellt.

Thema. Das Thema des Kursus war: die Vorstellung der deutschsprachigen Länder unter geschichtlichen, geographischen, gesellschaftspolitischen, kulturellen und wirtschaftlichen Blickwinkeln. Im Herbstsemester die BRD und Österreich und im Frühjahrssemester die DDR und die Schweiz.

Unterrichtsverlauf. Am Beginn und am Ende des Semesters steht eine Diskussionsstunde mit den Studenten, in der über den Unterrichtsverlauf, über technische und inhaltliche Fragen diskutiert wird. Auch der Beschluss, den Unterricht ins Selbststudium zu verlegen, wurde in der ersten Stunde gemeinsam gefasst. Das Selbststudium wird unterbrochen durch gemeinsame, von den Studenten selbst organisierte Abendveranstaltungen.
Im Herbstsemester:

2 St. Österreich
Studenten erzählen von ihren Erfahrungen
Lichtbilder

2 St. Stiller (Max Frisch, Vorstellung des Goethe-Instituts)

2 St. die Bundesrepublik Deutschland
Vortrag des Handelsattachées der Botschaft der BRD und anschliessende Diskussion

Die restlichen 9 Stunden von insgesamt 14 Stunden wurden durch Selbststudium bestritten. (Die Abendveranstaltungen wurden als eine Schulstunde berechnet)
Die Aufgabe des Lehrers besteht in der Planung und Herstellung des Selbststudiumprogramms und in der Korrektur der zurückgegebenen Aufgaben.

Planung und Herstellung des Programms. Grundsätzlich wird als Material nur für das Hören bestimmte Sprache verwendet. Als Quellen kommen deshalb in erster Linie Radioprogramme deutschsprachiger Rundfunkanstalten (Sendung 1/4/7) infrage, die wir per Post auf Kassetten bekommen oder selber aufnehmen. Sie müssen sprachlich wirklichkeitsnah und aktuell sein. Zu empfehlen ist besonders der Schulfunk der BRD. Auch von uns

aufgenommene Vorträge (Sendung 2) eignen sich gut, besonders, wenn sie ursprünglich für finnische Hörer gedacht sind. Eine grosse Hilfe bei der Materialsuche sind die Programme von INTER NATIONES (Sendung 3/6/8/9), die immer mit ausgezeichnetem Begleitmaterial versehen sind, was die Herstellung des Begleitmaterials für den Schüler sehr erleichtert. Auch der Lehrer selbst kann das Material für eine Sendung liefern (Sendung 5). Es liegt aber im Interesse des Schülers, ihm in dieser Phase so viele verschiedene Sprecher und Dialektfärbungen wie möglich vorzustellen.

Begleitmaterial. Das mit den Kassetten laufende Begleitmaterial liegt dieser Arbeit bei. Der zeitliche Aufwand zu seiner Herstellung ist jeweils verschieden. Im allgemeinen ist die Konzeption der Aufgabe für den Studenten durch den Lehrer der schwierigere aber auch interessantere Teil. Die Aufgabe soll sich sinnvoll an das Hörprogramm und an Forderungen anschliessen, die dem Studenten in Zukunft gestellt werden. Sie soll die freie Rede stimulieren und konkrete sprachliche Situationen markieren. Die Fertigkeiten soll sich der Student aus dem Hörprogramm erarbeiten und sie anschliessend in eigene Sprache umsetzen.

Die Korrektur besteht deshalb vor allem in der Berichtigung idiomatischer, umgangssprachlicher Wendungen, die jedem Studenten persönlich auf einem Korrekturbogen zurückgegeben werden (s. Sendung 1). Dies ist der zeitraubendste Teil für den Lehrer. Zum Abhören und gleichzeitigen Aufschreiben braucht man pro Schüler ca. 5-10 Minuten. Eine grosse Hilfe ist ein japanisches Kasettengerät AIWA, auf dem man die Laufgeschwindigkeit jeweils bis 55 % beschleunigen oder verlangsamen (25 %) kann.

Kritik. Grundsätzlich können die Schüler alles kritisieren, auf den meisten Begleitpapieren werden sie um Kritik gebeten. Auch wenn man beim Abhören einen Eindruck von der Wirksamkeit, Länge, und dem Schwierigkeitsgrad des Programms bekommt, ist doch die direkte Kritik durch den Schüler für die weitere Planung der Sendungen wichtig. Im allgemeinen bezieht sich die Kritik auf Inhalt, Länge und Schwierigkeitsgrad der Aufgaben.

Evaluation. Zum Abschluss des Semesters wurde den Studenten der beiliegende Fragebogen mit der Bitte um drei Vorteile und drei Nachteile dieser Unterrichtsform übersandt. 18 von 34 Fragebögen wurden zurückgegeben. Weihnachtsferien und Prüfungen mögen ein Grund für die schwache Beteiligung gewesen sein. (Die Gesamtbeteiligung am Kursus lag bei 90 %.) (obligt. 75 %)

Vorteile.

1) zeitliche Elastizität (18)
2) interessantere (anspruchsvollere) Programme (16)
3) persönliches Tempo, Rhythmus u. Rückgabe (9)
4) aktivierend (4)
5) keine Drückebergerei möglich (1)

Nachteile.

1) kein "face-to-face"-Gespräch (11)
2) nicht genügend Selbststudiumplätze (4)
3) zu späte Rückgabe (3)
4) keine Drückebergerei möglich (1)

In der letzten gemeinsamen Stunde wurde auf einstimmigen Wunsch beschlossen, den Unterricht in derselben Form weiterzuführen.

Diskussion. Die vorliegende Unterrichtsform ist ein Versuch, entstanden aufgrund der Erfahrungen, die Konversationsstunden mit 25-30 Schülern eingebracht haben. Die ideale Lösung, kleinere Gruppen und mehr Stunden, lag bisher nicht im Bereich der finanziellen Möglichkeiten. Der Entschluss zu noch rationellerer Ausnutzung des Sprachlabors ging davon aus, dass im Kontaktunterricht pro Jahr im Durchschnitt auf einen Schüler im Höchstfall 10 Minuten "face-to-face"-Diskussion entfallen (Pausen miteingerechnet). Auf diesem Hintergrund scheint das kontrollierte Selbststudium eine Möglichkeit zu sein, grössere Gruppen zu aktiverer Teilnahme zu bringen.

Eine Rationalisierung bei der Herstellung und Planung der Programme, auch für noch grössere Gruppen, ist leicht möglich. Viele Programme können in gleicher oder ähnlicher Form weiter benutzt werden.

Die technische Durchführung des Unterrichts ist von den Dienstleistungen des Sprachlabors abhängig. Auch müssen genügend Kassetten und Selbststudiumplätze zur Verfügung stehen. Ebenso Kopiermöglichkeiten und Abhörgeräte (+ Schreibmaschine). Im Sprachlabor muss die Möglichkeit sein, einen Diaprojektor vom Selbststudiumplatz aus zu bedienen, da manche Programme die Verwendung von Bildern neben der Kassette einschliessen.

Der Zeitaufwand durch den Lehrer übersteigt die eingesparte Stunde im Durchschnitt um ein Vierfaches und bleibt (finanziell) ein bisher ungelöstes Problem. Es ist möglich, dass bei mehr Erfahrung und besserer Planung die Hälfte der Lehrerzeit eingespart werden kann.

3. Jahreskurs - Sendung 1 - Österreichs Geschichte - der Anschluss Österreicns an das 3. Reich

Zuerst ganz allgemein zum Programm des 3. Jahreskursus.

Der grösste Teil des Unterrichts findet im Selbststudium statt. Einmal, höchstens zweimal pro Monat, veranstalten wir einen gemeinsamen Abend, ca. 45-60 Minuten. In der Veranstaltungswoche gibt es kein Programm im Selbststudium.

Das erste gemeinsame Treffen findet am 5.10. um 18 Uhr im Sprachlabor 205 statt. Der Abend steht unter dem Thema Österreich und das Programm wird von eigenen Kursteilnehmern bestritten. Sie erzählen von ihren Erfahrungen in Österreich und zeigen Lichtbilder.

Und nun zu unserem heutigen Programm: Ein Hörprogramm ist dazu da, dass man verstehen lernt. Am besten ist es, dass man sich die Stellen, die man nicht versteht, mehrere Male anhört. Es stehen Dir Wörterbücher und Lexika zur Verfügung, falls Du gar nicht mit dem Ohr weiterkommst. Man kann sich während des Hörens Notizen machen. Es schult mehr, wenn man versucht anhand von Notizen frei zu sprechen, auch wenn man Fehler macht. Fehler sind überhaupt kein Grund nicht zu sprechen oder nicht frei zu sprechen. Im Gegenteil, sie sollen ja verbessert werden. Leider hat man keine Möglichkeit, das ohne Kasette zu üben, da es an Zeit fehlt.

Und nun noch eine Bitte: Bitte schreib hier auf diesen Zettel Deinen Namen:

_____

Deine Adresse: _____

und Deine Telefonnummer: _____ (in Helsinki oder Umgebung)

Für die Rückgabe der Begleitbogen und Kasetten gibt es eine Mappe auf dem Börd, rechts hinter der Tür zum Sprachlabor.

Die Rückgabe der verbesserten Programme (Fragebögen oder Kasetten) daselbst in einer schwarzen Mappe, meistens ca. nach einer Woche.

Name _____

Sendung 2 - Österreich - Landeskunde und Wirtschaft

In dieser Sendung kannst Du Dein Hörverständnis testen.

Du hörst einen Vortrag über Österreichs Wirtschaft. Vortragender: Dipl.-Kaufmann Holoubeck, Handelsattaché der Österreichischen Vertretung in Helsinki. Zu diesem Vortrag findest Du eine Reihe von Behauptungen. Antworte mit JA oder NEIN. Hör Dir den Vortrag nur einmal an. Du kannst jedesmal das Band stoppen, wenn Du Dich entschieden hast. Lies Dir die folgende Behauptung durch und hör weiter. Wenn Du alle Antworten geschrieben hast musst Du doppelt soviel JA wie NEIN geschrieben haben. Viel Spass!

Einen Hafen hat Österreich nicht und auch Kanäle sind keine Lösung für die Schiffahrt _____

Österreich ist eine Bundesrepublik und hat eine autome Verwaltung in den 9 Bundesländern _____

Unter sich kennen die Österreicher keine provinziellen Vorurteile _____

Das Klima Österreichs ist gemässigt _____

Österreich hat prozentual ebensoviel Wald wie Finnland _____

Fast 90 % der ca 7.5 Mio Einwohner sind Lutheraner _____

Die zentrale Lage Österreichs ist der Grund für eine sehr homogene Bevölkerung _____

Das Jahr 1938 übergeht Herr Holoubek sehr geschickt _____

Besatzung heisst: Siegertruppen sind im Land stationiert _____

Der wirtschaftliche Aufschwung Östrerreihs begann 1955 _____

Im Parlament sind alle Parteien vertreten _____

In der Österreichischen Volkspartei gibt es Arbeitgeber- und Arbeitnehmerverbände _____

Der Pabst und die OECD sind einer Meinung über die vorbildliche Wirtschaftspolitik Österreichs _____

Der Zuwachs liegt unter und die Preissteigerungen über dem OECD-Durchschnitt _____

Die Österreicher streiken faktisch nie _____

Zur Grundstoffindustrie rechnet man auch die Wasserkraft _____

Die Grossindustrie Österreichs ist fast durchweg verstaatlicht _____

Die Ausfuhren Österreichs liegen prozentual über Finnlands Exportquote _____

Finnland und Österreich haben die gleiche Stellung zur EG _____

Für den schwachen Export in ferne Länder macht Herr Holoubek u.a. den österreichischen Volkscharakter verantwortlich _____

Ein weiterer Grund für den geringen Export nach Übersee ist das Fehlen von erfahrenen Handelshäusern _____

Dafür haben sich die Österreicher auf den Tourismus spezialisiert _____

Die Österreicher exportieren mehr nach Finnland als die Finnen nach Österreich _____

Der Warenaustausch zwischen Finnland und Österreich betrifft fast nur hochveredelte Produkte _____

Sendung 3 - Österreichs Sprache - Bairisch -

Name: .....

1

„Aufgsang!" Bayerischer Rundfunk, Bandnr. 57/8115-7

Hörts zua ös Leit
und lassts enk sagn
Lasts auf schö stiad mitnand!
Des boarisch Herz,
des hörts heut schlagn
durchs ganze Bayerniand.
A gstandns Wort,
a Zitherklang —
des is des was i mag!
Ums boarisch Herz
is mir net bang —
des hat den rechtn Schlag.

2

D'Freid is so gschamt
Und flugs is a'dahi,
Wiar a Bissn, schee pflamt,
Wann i hungari bi.

Awa's Load is a Brocka,
Und wann ma oan schlickt,
Lat a drin wiar a Nocka
Und druckt oan und zwickt.

Die Freude ist verschämt und ist flugs dahin, wie ein winziger Bissen, wenn ich hungrig bin. Aber das Leid ist ein Brocken, und wenn man ihn schluckt, liegt er im Magen wie ein Knödel der zwickt und druckt.

3

Titus: Ah, Frau Gartnerin, gut, daß ich Ihnen seh —

Flora: Was macht Er denn da oben am Fenster vom Schloß mit aner Serviettn um den Hals und an Fasanbiegel in der Hand? Wo bleibt Er denn? Ich wart'm Essen —

Titus: Ich nicht! Ich hab schon gegessen.

Flora: Was, auf m Schloß?

Titus: Bei der Kammerfrau in der Kammer, sehr gut gespeist! Es war der erste Fasan, dem ich die letzte Ehr' angetan hab! Mit diesem Biegel is seine irdische Hülle in der meinigen begraben.

Flora: Es is aber sehr unschicklich, daß Er dort schmarotzt! Ich werd mir das verbieten.

Titus: Sich können Sie verbieten, was Sie wollen, aber mir nicht! Ich steh nicht mehr unter Ihrer Tyrannei, ich hab eine andere, eine bessere Kondition angenommen.

Flora: Was wär' das?

Titus: Warten S' a bissel, ich muß Ihnen was übergeben. Gleich bin ich wieder da.

bitte erzähl mir auf der Kasette auch einige Worte darüber, wie Dir das Programm gefallen hat, ob es zu leicht oder zu schwer war oder wie man es besser machen könnte.

4

Am Sonntag ist das Waldfest von der Liedertafel gewesen. Der Seitz und der Knilling sind herumgelaufen und haben die Einladungen gemacht.

Bei uns sind sie auch gewesen. Meine Mutter hat sie in das schöne Zimmer gelassen, und Annchen und Cora sind hinein, und ich bin auch hinein.

Der Seitz und der Knilling sind auf das Kanapee gesessen und haben die Zylinder auf ihre Knie gestellt. Der Seitz hat seine Augen herausgehängt und wenn er geredet hat, hat er den Mund spitzig gemacht, als ob er pfeift.

5

Peter!

Ja?

Hast du morgen nicht Zeit?

Ja, freilich habe ich Zeit. Zu was denn?

Da gehen wir ein wenig in den Wald.

Ja, was ist denn da drinnen los?

Ja, Holz hat es mir so viel abgebrochen.

Abgebrochen. Ja, merk einmal auf, Sepp. Abgebrochen sind die Wipfel alle weg. Die messen wir nachher. Die Wipfel aussasten bis aufs End, die Äste alle zusammenwerfen und die stärkeren auch herausschneiden. Willst du dann Grubenholz daraus machen oder Brennholz?

Nein, da möchte ich Schleifholz daraus machen.

Schleifholz. Gut, dann müssen wir das Schleifholz schälen, nicht?

Ja, freilich.

Ja, schälen müssen wir es, ausmessen, auch auf die Länge, und abstacken.

Ganz richtig, herrichten, wie es sich gehört zum Verkaufen.

Zum Verkaufen, ja, das ist ja gut. Wieviel könnte denn das ungefähr sein?

Ja, meiner Schätzung nach so 5 Doppelster.

6

Asbloicht sans vo da Sunna
dawaschn von Regn.
Af an jedn vo dene Bre'ln
is a Tout scho drafglegn.

An Bauan sa Nama,
a Spruch is afegschrie'm
Wöi ar a so glabt hot
und alles hot trie'm.

Ausgebleicht und abgewaschen sind sie vom Regen.
Auf jedem dieser Bretter ist schon ein Toter gelegen.
Des Bauern Name und ein Spruch ist draufgeschrieben
Wie er gelebt hat, was er alles hat getrieben.

7

Auframma sagn mir zon Ausweissln. Dos isch an Arwat, da grod de Weiberleit bleib. Waar oan scho gnua, bal ma an ganzn Winta da Fluigngschiss oschaugn müasst. Und si'scht — da Haustenna, da Stall, Kammer und Kammerlen, es braucht an Arwat, bis ma überall durch isch. Freili, es trickert it so leicht mehr, aber mi muass es halt toan bal ma Derweil hat. Da Putzaus und da Kehraus bringen koa Geld is Haus.

Aufräumen sagen wir zum Ausweißen. Das ist eine Arbeit, die den Weiberleuten bleibt. Wäre schlimm, wenn man den ganzen Winter die Fliegenschisse anschauen müßte. Und sonst — die Tenne, der Stall, Kammer und die Kammerlein — es braucht viel Arbeit, bis man überall durch ist. Freilich, es trocknet jetzt nicht mehr so leicht, aber man muß es dann tun, wenn man Zeit hat, mit dem Putzen und Kehren ist nämlich kein Geld verdient.

8

Dör eall Hirt gschpirt wias mitn oawärts geaht! D'Haxó taugs scho lang nix mea, dö letschta Tóag werda'n inwendi bal koalt — nach mea hoass, dör Schnaufar geaht oallawal kurzör. Ban Ofala hockt a sell — gwörmt dö moagara Händ — schaugt durch dös vörstabi Fenschter naus, gan Birőbam num — wia de letschte Blattla rafalle — und wia a por Gimpl in die Escht umanande durna. Des loch koa guats Zoacha, de kunnt gor bal amol a Schneela kemma. Na lost a nea, ob a aach koa Glockla gheart oder a Schelle, ob sie von dr Alm a'Viech no it hoamtreibe — schea staad kimmt d'Liachtzeit.

Der alte Hirte merkt, wie es mit ihm abwärts geht. Die Füße taugen schon lange nichts mehr. Die letzten Tage wird es ihm inwendig bald kalt, dann wieder heiß. Der Atem geht immer kürzer. Am Ofein sitzt er, wärmt sich die abgemagerten Hände, schaut durch das verstaubte Fenster hinaus zum Birnbaum hinuber, sieht, wie die letzten Blätter fallen und wie ein paar Gimpel in den Ästen turnen. Das ist kein gutes Zeichen, da könnte bald der Schnee kommen. Dann horcht er, ob er kein Glöcklein hört oder eine Schelle, ob sie von der Alm das Vieh noch nicht heimtreiben. — Langsam kommt die Lichtzeit.

9

In a Tiroler Stubn is da Wald dahoam.

Da riachts nach Lärchenbüsch, nach Sunne, Schnee und Wind.

In jede Stube ghört a groasse Tisch in Herrgottswinkchl, an Uhr, on Ofen und de Bankch rundum.

In jeda Stube sollat halt a Musi sei.

A Musi mit an Gsangl machts erscht gmuatli, fei und warm. Aus insern Stubn wachst die Kchraft ins Land. Und wer kchoa Stube hat, is richtig arm.

10

1. Zitator: Bádal

2. Zitator: Ja?

1. Zitator: Hast marng net Zeid?

2. Zitator: Ja, freili hawi Zeid, zo woa dánn?

1. Zitator: Do gamma-r-a weng as Holz hintera!

2. Zitator: Ja, woa is dánn do hintn lous?

1. Zitator: Aa, Holz hot's ma so vü obrocha!

2. Zitator: So, ja, obrocha. Merk amoi aaf, Sepp. — Obrocha, ha,[sic] dee Gipfin olle wág, dee maßt ma na dann. Gipfin aasostn bis aafs End, Ást zsammwerfa und dee stárkan aa-r-oschnei — — Wörst da dann a Groumholz mocha draus oda-r-a Brennholz?

11

„Ja, da kon i vui davo erzain. Da samma-r-amoi im Somma, am Ferienanfang wars, mit drei andere Buam, mit unsan Pfarra, ins Gebirg auffigstiegn, beim Hochgern da hintn und bei dee Oipn da vorn — und dee hot a Oim ghabt, und dann, so in da Fruah uma siema samma weggat, wei, mir hamma vui Zeit ghabt und uma viere sowas samma nachara elendn Kraxlerei — d Knia hama uns aufghaut ghabt — obmat ekemma. Na hamma hoit so guate Butterbrot ghabt vo dee Kuah, ganz frisch!"

Na ja, da kann ich viel davon erzählen. Da sind wir einmal im Sommer, am Ferienanfang, war's, mit drei anderen Buben, mit unserem Pfarrer ins Gebirge hinaufgestiegen, beim Hochgern da hinten und bei den Alpen da vorn. Und die hat eine Alm gehabt. Und dann so in der Früh um sieben sind wir weggegangen, weil wir viel Zeit hatten und so etwa um vier sind wir nach einer elenden Kraxelei, die Knie hatten wir uns aufgehauen, oben angekommen. Na, da haben wir halt so gute Butterbrote gehabt, von den Kühen, ganz frisch.

13

Zitator: „Pfinzta"

2. Sprecher: für Donnerstag — oder

Zitator: „Ergetag", „Eritag", „Irta"

2. Sprecher: für Dienstag. Der Mittwoch heißt

Zitator: „Micka"

2. Sprecher: und die Kirchweih

Zitator: „Kirta".

Zitator: A richtiga Kirta
dauert bis zun Irta.
Es ho si aa schicka
— bis zun Micka.

12

In da Fruah — aussa
Um neune — Brotzeit.
Abarat zehn Minuten.
A Stund Mittag. Um halbe eans.
Feierabend um funfe
Na hoam.
D'Frau hat an Schurz o, wann s' aufmacht,
Zeitung lesn auf n Kanapee — und essen.
Wenn s' dar a Halbe gstellt hat,
trinkst as zamm.
Und nacha bald ins Bett.
Wo — in da Fruah — muaßt aussa.
Und am Sonntag fuast dar an Stui an
Balkon naus
Und schaugst da d Leut o.
Dees is gspassig!

In der nächsten Woche (3.-7.10.) gibt es kein Selbststudiumprogramm. Wir treffen uns am

5.10. um 18. Uhr zu einem Lichtbilderabend über Österreich.

Herzlich willkommen!

DDR
HESSEN
Frankfurt
Würzburg
Bayreuth
Prag
TSCHECHOSLOWAKEI
BRD
Nürnberg
Regensburg
Stuttgart
Landshut
BAYERN
ÖSTERREICH
Salzburg
Innsbruck
Graz
Klagenfurt
UNGARN
JUGOSLAWIEN
Triest
ITALIEN
69

Sendung 4 Name: _____

Deutschland - Geschichte - Albert Einstein und die goldenen 20er Jahre

Sei ehrlich und kreuz die auf Dich zutreffenden Sätze an.

Hör das Programm nur einmal!

Ich habe so gut wie nichts verstanden

Ich habe nur sehr wenig verstanden

Ich konnte dem Inhalt gerade so eben folgen

Ich habe eine ganze Menge verstanden

Am Anfang habe ich fast nichts verstanden - gegen Ende ging es besser

Das Programm war so lang, dass ich am Ende ganz müde war

Die naturwissenschaftlichen Sachen habe ich überhaupt nicht verstanden

Diese Art von Geschichten interessieren mich überhaupt nicht

Möglicherweise bekommt man dadurch einen Eindruck über die Epoche vor dem 2. Weltkrieg

Das war kein Programm über deutsche Geschichte, sondern eins über Naturwissenschaft

Aus der Geschichte kann man sowieso nichts lernen

Wirtschaftler brauchen über solche Sachen nichts zu wissen

Ich hätte Das Band (Programm) gern besser verstanden, weil es interessant war

Eine Wörterliste wäre ganz nützlich zum Verständnis

Ich hätte gern ein Tapeskript gehabt

Ich möchte noch folgendes dazu sagen: _____

_____

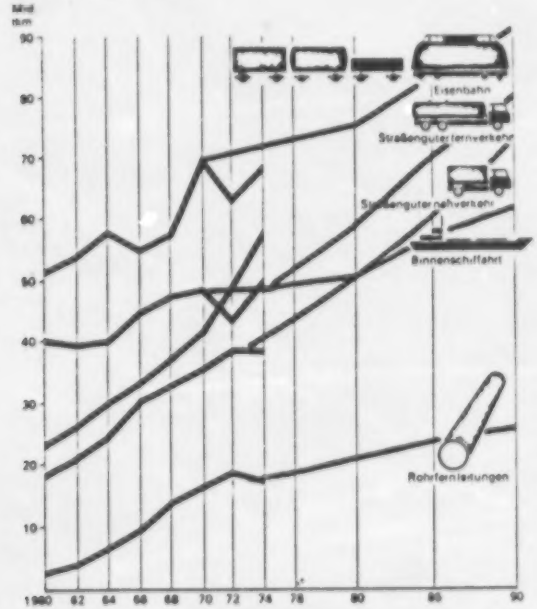
Die Sendung bestand aus einem Vortrag:
Einstein - alles ist relativ
Tendenzen der 20er Jahre
von Armin Hermann
40 Min.

Quelle: NWDR
im Auftrag des Europarats und der
Bundesregierung

Sendung 5 Wirtschaft

Diese Sendung ist hauptsächlich als aktive Sprechsendung gedacht. Du kannst unbegrenzt lange sprechen. Am Anfang hörst Du, wie Herr Stagneth Dir die folgende Tabelle über die Langfristprognose (pitkätähteinen ennuste) des Güterverkehrs in der Bundesrepublik mit eigenen Worten erklärt.

Langfristprognose des Güterverkehrs



	durchschnittl. jährl. Wachstum in %				
	tatsächl. Entwicklung		Prognose		
	60 bis 70	70 bis 74	70 bis 80	80 bis 85	85 bis 90
Straßengüternahverkehr	6.7	2.0	3.5	3.7	3.7
Eisenbahn	3.1	−0.6	0.8	2.2	1.9
Binnenschiffahrt	1.9	1.1	0.5	2.4	1.6
Straßengüterfernverkehr	5.8	8.5	3.5	3.4	2.7
Rohrfernleitungen	18.8	1.8	2.4	2.5	1.5

Quelle: Bundesminister für Verkehr 1976

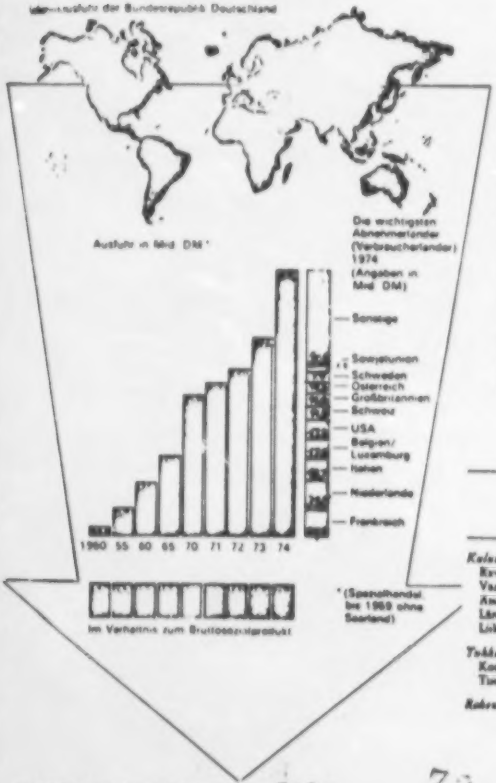
bitte wenden

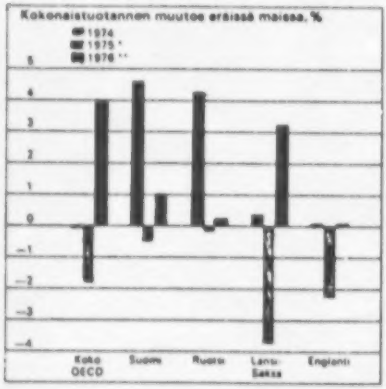
Von den drei anderen Tabellen kannst Du Dir zwei aussuchen. Erkläre sie in ähnlicher Form mündlich auf die andere Seite der Kasette. Spul die Kasette erst an den Anfang.

Hier einige Ausdrücke, die Du vielleicht benutzen kannst:

steigen - fallen/ sinken
zu/nehmen - ab/nehmen
sich vergrössern - sich verkleinern/sich verringern
sich verdoppeln, sich verdreifachen, sich vervierfachen usw. bis sich vervielfachen
wachsen - schrumpfen
sich verändern - gleich bleiben/unverändert bleiben

Sollten Dir sonst noch Wörter fehlen, schau in das Wörterverzeichnis von "Wenn's ums Geld geht". Es steht auf dem Bücherbord.





Hinnanmuutokset

	Hinnat/kuu 1977	Muutos, % henkl.kuusta 1976	Muutos, % vuos.kuusta 1977
Kulutustavaroiden indeksi (1972 = 100)	198 .1	+ 13.1	+ 8.1
Ravinto	222.4	+ 20.1	+ 14.2
Vaatetus ja jalkineet	177.1	+ 3.1	+ 2.2
Asunto	181.0	+ 6.0	+ 4.1
Lämpö ja valo	222.4	+ 10.2	+ 6.2
Liikenne	190.0	+ 14.1	+ 9.0
Tukkukauppaindeksi (1949 = 100)	697	+ 11.0	+ 5.0
Kotimaiset tavarat	719	+ 11.0	+ 5.0
Tuontitavarat	613	+ 10.0	+ 7.0
Rakennuskustannusindeksi (1973 = 100)	172.0	+ 13.9	+ 8.2

WAREN AUSTAUSCH der BRD

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Sendung 6 Name: _____

Terror

Die Ereignisse der letzten Wochen wurden durch den Terrorismus bestimmt. Die Hauptakteure in diesem tragischen und weltweiten Drama kommen u.a. aus der Bundesrepublik Deutschland. Bei der Auseinandersetzung über die unbegreiflichen Motive, stösst man unweigerlich auf die Gesellschaft, in der wir heute in Europa und in der Welt leben.

Einer der Schriftsteller, die ernsthaft versuchen, den Menschen in der heutigen Gesellschaft zu analysieren, ist Max Frisch. Frisch ist Schweizer, Architekt und Verfasser von Romanen, Tagebüchern und Hörspielen. Sein Roman

"Ich bin nicht Stiller"

wird hier in unserer Schule von Wolfgang Haller in einer Bühnenfassung vorgetragen. (Siehe umseitig) Ich möchte allen Studenten des 3. Jahreskursus empfehlen, diesem Gastspiel beizuwohnen.

Für diejenigen, die nicht an diesem Abend teilnehmen können, ist in dieser Woche ein Ausschnitt aus dem Hörspiel

"Biedermann und die Brandstifter"

von Max Frisch im Selbststudium. Hier eine kurze Einführung in die Handlung:

Herr Biedermann hat aus reiner "Menschenliebe" ein paar aus dem Gefängnis entlassene Männer bei sich aufgenommen. Er hat ihnen seinen Dachboden (Estrich) zur Verfügung gestellt. Dorthin haben die Männer massenweise Benzinkanister und Sprengladung gebracht. Die Villa der Biedermanns liegt neben den Gasometern (kaasusäiliöt) der Stadt. Die Terroristen sagen ihre Absicht deutlich. Es fehlen ihnen nur noch die Streichhölzer. Herr Biedermann, um sein Gewissen gänzlich zu beruhigen, lädt seine Hausbewohner zu einem "netten Abendessen" ein.....

Du findest in der Mappe "Fragebögen" ein Tapeskript zu diesem Band. Bitte leg es wieder dorthin zurück, wenn Du das Band gehört hast. Schau nur in den Text, wenn Du es sonst nicht verstehst. Die Sendung dauert 30 Minuten. Bitte schreib mir mit einigen Worten, wie Dir das Hörspiel gefallen hat.

_____

_____

_____

DAS HÖRSPIEL WURDE 1953 !! GESCHRIEBEN.

Sendung 7 Nachfragemacht - Tauziehen bei Industrie und Handel

Name:.....

Dies ist eine kombinierte Übung. Etwas HÖREN - etwas SPRECHEN - etwas ZEICHNEN - etwas ERFINDEN. Viel Spass!

Hör zu!

Eine nicht auf eigener wirtschaftlicher Leistung beruhende Verstärkung der Marktmacht, wie sie aus wettbewerbsschädlichen Unternehmenszusammenschlüssen erwachsen kann, darf unser Wettbewerbsrecht nicht dulden. Und das gilt dann in gleicher Weise für die missbräuchliche Ausnutzung von Nachfragemacht, insbesondere im Handel.

Bitte füll aus.

Wer spricht? Name und Titel:.....

Was für eine Erklärung gibt er ab?.....

Die Regierungserklärung enthielt auch das Schlagwort, das die augenblickliche wettbewerbspolitische Diskussion beherrscht, die N a c h - f r a g e m a c h t. Wiederholt hat die Bundesvereinigung deutscher Einkaufsverbände zum Ausdruck gebracht, dass sie eine Diskussion um die Nachfragemacht im Prinzip billigt, doch die Randerscheinungen, die damit verbunden sind, können nicht widerspruchslos hingenommen werden. Immer wieder versucht die Industrie - Entschuldigung, dass ich hier die Industrie direkt anspreche, aber die Industrie versucht immer wieder, die Diskussion eindeutig mit dem Blick auf den Handel zu führen. Sie sollte doch aber endlich einmal erkennen, dass durch ihre so deutlich interessengebundenen Diskussionsbeiträge dem Handel ein vorurteilsfreies Erörtern der Problematik erschwert wird. Wenn Nachfragemacht diskutiert wird, meine Herren, dann kann es nur umfassend, d.h. unter Einbeziehung der Nachfragemacht innerhalb der Industrie und auch beim Handel geschehen.

Wer spricht? Name und Position:.....

.....

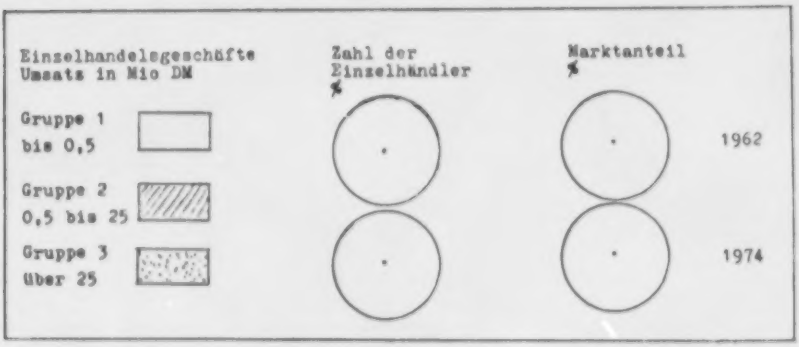
Die Diskussion um Nachfragemacht gibt es bei uns, ich würde sagen, seit Anfang der 60er Jahre. Damals schlugen sehr viele Konsumgütermärkte von Verkäufermärkten in Käufermärkte um, d.h. Ware wurde plötzlich reichlich, sie war bis dahin eher knapp. Der Handel hatte blos eine Verteilerfunktion. Er war froh, wenn er Ware bekam. Das Sagen hatten die Hersteller auf den Märkten. Es war klar Nachholbedarf nach dem Krieg. Ab Anfang der 60er Jahre schlug die Situation um. Es waren sehr hohe Kapazitäten aufgebaut worden von der Industrie. Es war Ware überreichlich da und der Handel bekam plötzlich neue Funktion. Er durfte nicht mehr nur verteilen eine knappe Ware, sondern er musste Marketing betreiben. Auch das Emporkommen dieses Marketings und des Marketingbegriffs fällt in diesen Zeitraum. Der Handel wurde plötzlich wichtig. Produzieren war nicht mehr so wichtig. Verkaufen war wichtiger. Diese Situation hat sich inzwischen weiter zugespitzt und im Zusammenhang mit einer rezessiven Entwicklung, wie Sie wissen, die ja immer noch nicht umgeschlagen ist wieder in eine laufende gute Konjunktur, haben sich die Dinge verschärft. Die Hersteller sitzen auf ihrer Ware, der Handel muss verkaufen. Es gab auch Konzentrationsprozesse im Handel und es hat sich plötzlich eben herauskristallisiert, dass heute nicht mehr der Hersteller der Marktmächtige ist in vielen Bereichen, sondern der Händler, der also gewissermassen die Gnade hat, Ware vom Hersteller zu nehmen.

Welche Behörde vertritt der Sprecher?.....

Seine Stellung?.....

Die Strukturverschiebung im Einzelhandelsmarkt

Bitte ZEICHNE in die Abbildung die fehlenden Werte so ein, dass man einen Überblick über die Strukturverschiebungen im Einzelhandelsmarkt bekommt.



Nachfrage ist nicht auf den Handel beschränkt. Aber sie ist hier am sichtbarsten und sie wird hier auch deutlich angestrebt. Wenn sich potente Händler zusammenschliessen um gemeinsam einzukaufen, dann ist die grössere Marktbedeutung - also mehr Nachfrage - und damit auch mehr Nachfragemacht, auch ein wesentliches Ziel.

Und nun ein bischen WORTBILDUNG! Nicht nur im Finnischen ist unsere Sprache voller neuer wunderschöner Wortschöpfungen, auch Deutsch ist kreativ!

Wettbewerb = kilpailu

So wird's gemacht: Dies Produkt ist für den Wettbewerb fähig. Es kann auf den Markt geworfen werden. =

Dies wettbewerbsfähige Produkt kann auf den Markt geworfen werden..... .....Einsparung: 13 Laute

Und jetzt Du: bilde das entsprechende Adjektiv

es hemmt den Wettbewerb .....
es fördert den Wettbewerb ..... z.B mit Verben
es schränkt den Wettbewerb ein ..... (Part.praes)

kilpailutahtoinen .....
kilpailuhaluinen ..... z.B. mit
kilpailukykyinen ..... Adjektiven
kilpailuystävällinen .....

Und nun zum Schluss möchte ich gern von Dir einige Worte hören. Bitte erklär mir mit eigenen Worten was man unter dem neuen Schlagwort

N a c h f r a g e m a c h t

versteht. Du brauchst Deine Kassette nicht umzudrehen. Antworte hier auf Seite 1 der Kassette.

7

Sendung 8 Fischfang Name: _____

oder die Jagd auf Verben

Du hörst ein Hörspiel. Es handelt vom Fischfang auf der Nordsee. Die Sprache ist wie der Seemannsberuf - hart und ausdrucksvoll. Die Sätze enthalten nur wenige Wörter. Fast in jedem Satz findest Du ein Verb. Wenn Du kurze und treffende Sätze bilden willst, brauchst Du Verben - Verben und noch mal Verben.

Arbeite folgendermassen:

1) lies die Liste der Verben durch und schreib die finnischen Bedeutungen in Spalte 1. Aber nur die, die Du spontan schon weisst.
2) Hör Dir das Hörspiel an, verfolg die Liste gleichzeitig.
3) Geh die Liste noch einmal durch. Vielleicht weisst Du jetzt schon mehr Verben. Schreib die finnischen Bedeutungen in Spalte 2.

B E N U T Z E K E I N L E X I K O N ! Es geht zu viel Zeit dabei drauf. Wenn Du das Hörspiel noch einmal hören willst - ich habe nichts dagegen. Viel Spass!

Benutz eine Kasette vom Bücherbörd und stell sie anschliessend wieder dorthin zurück.

Hier die Einführung in das Hörspiel:

Hiev op!

Akustisches Logbuch einer Fischfangreise nach Ostgrönland

Unsere Erde, verehrte Zuhörer, wird von Astronauten der blaue Planet genannt. Blau - in dieser Farbe bietet sie sich den Augen der Raumfahrer dar. Warum eigentlich?

Nun, sieben Zehntel ihrer Oberfläche sind mit Wasser bedeckt. Mit grossen Meeren, die nicht nur die klimatischen Bedingungen, unter denen wir leben, erhalten, die zugleich auch eine wichtige Nahrungsquelle für die Menschheit sind - und eine gigantische dazu. Nicht einmal ein Prozent des Fischbestandes aller Meere wird gefangen und verarbeitet. Insgesamt jedoch sind es immerhin 70 Millionen Tonnen im Jahr.

Von den grossen Fischereinationen, wie Japan, China, Sowjetunion, Norwegen, USA, zieht allein Peru jährlich etwa 12 Millionen Tonnen Fisch an Bord, die Bundesrepublik Deutschland dagegen nur 250 000 Tonnen. Allerdings unter den harten Fangbedingungen der nördlichen Meere, also meist bei Sturm und Eis.

Wenn das plattdeutsche Kommando "Hiev op!" ertönt - soll heissen: "Zieht das Netz hoch!" - entscheidet sich immer wieder neu, ob es eine gute oder schlechte Reise wird. Das Logbuch - das Bordtagebuch also - wird am Ende darüber Auskunft geben. Am Anfang steht nur die Hoffnung.

	1	2	
trommeln			
zerschlagen			
zusammenstellen			
starren			
freigeben			
manövrieren			
leuchten			
reizen			
verzweifeln			
bollern			
klappen			
wetzen			
dicht machen			
strömen			
schieben			
stecken			
spiessen			
schlachten			
bluten			
schaffen			
greifen			
tasten			
entgräten			
abwiegen			
zusammenpressen			
treiben			
einschalten			
einflössen			
klopfen			
spalten			
aufzeichnen			
reissen			
retten			
sich verfärben			
sich auftürmen			
schleudern			
schwingen			
zittern			
mahlen			

rinnen			
treiben			
nachlassen			
verarbeiten			
anfallen			
frosten			
schleppen			
winken			
gleiten			
ziehen			
zerschneiden			
in Sicht sein			
aufziehen			
walzen			
aufscheuchen	[illegible]		
sperren			
spannen			
fassen			
rutschen			
poltern	[illegible]		
tauchen			
spulen	[illegible]		
sich einfinden			
zweifeln			
etwas bedienen			
einsetzen			
knattern			
spülen			
erstarren			
stimmen			
trennen			
stoppen			
ansetzen			
umkreisen			
quellen			
klatschen			
sich ergiessen			
zucken	[illegible]		
verschlingen			

fluchen			
riskieren			
zerreissen			
sich lösen			
einfrieren			
nachgeben	antaa periksi		
zerren			
ausfallen			
abbrechen			
überschlagen	ärvioida		
ertönen			
heulen			

Kritik:

Name: _____

Sendung 9 Wer kommt mit? Eine Reise durch die BRD

Zuerst möchte ich Dich mit dem Programm bekannt machen, dass Dich bis Weihnachten noch erwartet. Die 2. gemeinsame Veranstaltung findet am

Donnerstag, den 24. November 1977 um 18.00 Uhr

im Sprachlabor 205 statt.

Es spricht der Wirtschaftsattaché der Botschaft der Bundesrepublik Deutschland Herr Dr. Werner Zimprich über das Thema:

Wirtschaft und Arbeitsmöglichkeiten in der BRD

Der Vortrag wird kurz sein, die Diskussion hoffentlich um so länger. Vor dem Vortrag wird ein Film über die Bundesrepublik laufen, ca. 20 Minuten, und einige unserer Studenten berichten dazu über ihre eigenen Erfahrungen in der BRD. Da wir für diesen Abend etwas mehr Zeit reserviert haben als gewöhnlich - ungefähr 2 Schulstunden - gibt es in der Woche vom 21.11.-26.11. und in der Woche vom 28.11. bis 3.12. KEIN Selbststudium. Unsere letzte Stunde in diesem Semester findet am 9.12.1977 um 13 Uhr im Sprachlabor 204 statt. Wir treffen uns dort und wollen über die bisherige Arbeit sprechen. Bitte vergiss diese beiden Termine nicht!

Und nun zu unserem Programm der Woche. Es ist also das letzte Selbststudiumprogramm in diesem Jahr. Wie Du schon am Thema siehst, handelt es sich um Landeskunde der BRD. Es ist nicht ganz einfach, an einem Kasettenapparat Landeskunde zu betreiben. Deshalb musst Du diesmal zusätzlich noch einen Diaprojektor bedienen. Keine Angst, es ist auch nicht schwerer als im Auto zu sitzen und ab und zu auf den Gashebel zu drücken. An den Selbststudiumplätzen im Flur (vor dem Zimmer 209) findest Du neben dem Kasettenapparat auf dem Tisch einen Diaprojektor. Du legst Deine Kasette ein und nimmst eine der beiden Diakasetten und führst sie sorgfältig in den Diaprojektor ein. Dann schaltest Du beide Maschinen an. Jedesmal wenn von der Kasette ein Gongzeichen ertönt, drückst Du auf den Knopf ETEEH am Diaprojektor. Un die Reise beginnt!

Du hast zwei Möglichkeiten.

Reise A

ist eine gemütliche Reise von Ort zu Ort, durch verschiedene Landschaften. Du siehst Städte und Menschen wie ein Tourist. Du kanst Deine eigenen Beobachtungen dabei machen und wirst nicht durch allzu viele Informationen belastet.

Reise B

ist eine landeskundlich informative Reise, bei der Du schon durch die sachverständige Führung einen Eindruck von den geographischen und wirtschaftlichen Verhältnissen der Landschaften und Städte erhältst, durch die Du reist.

Such Dir die passende Reise aus. Beide Reisen dauern 30 Minuten. Schreib mir auf die Rückseite dieses Papiers einen kurzen Brief darüber, wie Dir die Reise gefallen hat.

Gute Fahrt!

Aus dem beiliegenden Bericht geht hervor, wie der bisherige Unterricht in unserem 3. Jahreskurs abgelaufen ist. Dieser Bericht soll veröffentlicht werden und ich wäre deshalb sehr dankbar, wenn Du mir Deine Meinung zu dieser Form des Unterrichts sagen würdest.

Bitte schreib hier auf dieses Papier:

3 Vorteile (etuja) dieser Unterrichtsform (wenn's geht KURZ)

1)
2)
3)

3 Nachteile (haittoja) dieser Unterrichtsform (wenn's geht KURZ)

1)
2)
3)

Du kanst auch auf Finnish antworten!

++++++++++++++++++

Darf ich Dich bei dieser Gelegenheit an unsere Veranstaltungen erinnern:

Donnerstag, den 24.11.1977 um 18 Uhr im Sprachlabor 205

WIRTSCHAFT und ARBEITSMOGLICHKEITEN
in der BRD

Handelsattaché Dr. Werner Zimprich und die Studenten
Anneli Arponen - Pekka Huttunen - Sirkku Santala
Ulla Niemelä

und unsere letzte Stunde am Freitag, den 9.12.1977 um 13 Uhr im Sprachlabor 204 statt.

Bitte gib die Antworten bis zum 1.12. ab, entweder in die Mappe Rückgabe oder per Post. Vielen Dank für Deine Mitarbeit.

Christine Tammisto

Nachtrag. Seit Herbst 1978 stehen uns für diesen Kursus 2 Wochenstunden zur Verfügung. Für unseren heutigen Unterricht konnten wir die positiven Erfahrungen mit dem kontrollierten Selbststudium ausnutzen und gleichzeitig den Mangel an "face-to-face"-Konversation beseitigen. Die Studenten arbeiten zuerst 45 Minuten im Selbststudium und werden anschliessend in zwei Gruppen geteilt. Für jede Gruppe steht ein Lehrer zur Verfügung. Für den Lehrer entfällt dadurch die zeitraubende Korrekturphase, für den Schüler leider die "zeitliche Elastizität".

Timo Sikanen
Language Centre for the Finnish
Universities

THE USE OF SELF-INSTRUCTION IN THE TEACHING OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION
- A report on a teaching experimentation

The shortage of language teaching resources in higher education has made especially the bodies responsible for granting funds continually offer self-instruction as a patent solution for cutting down the estimated need for resources which at present greatly exceeds available funds. Self-instruction itself is not a new invention in higher education, it is used to a varying extent in the language laboratories of all institutes of higher education. It is, however, mainly a voluntary activity based on the interests and needs of students and staff and it is only loosely, if at all, connected with studies. On the other hand self-instruction has probably been used comparatively little as the only or main form of work in any language course stipulated in the degree requirements. The experience gained from voluntary language study cannot be generalized to apply directly to this kind of course.

Although self-instruction has so far been sparingly used in higher education it has been an object of research both in Finland and in other countries for several years. In Finland experimental research on the use of self-instruction in the learning of a foreign language has been carried out by Black (1971) and Kohonen (1972) at the University of Turku, and by Ylikerälä (1975) on the cost of different teaching methods at the Language Centre for Finnish Universities. At the moment a UNESCO financed project is subjecting to critical analysis courses used in the teaching of foreign languages and meant for self-instruction. The project was started in 1975 and was carried out at the Ecole Normale Supérieure de Saint-Cloud in France. According to preliminary information the project was to complete its final report by the end of 1977. For several years Hills (1976) from the University of Surrey has carried out research on self-instruction as an alternative teaching method in higher education.

In order for self-instruction to influence the resource needs, some parts of the courses planned as teacher-directed should be carried out entirely or partly without the constant presence of the teacher. The

possibilities mentioned most often in this connection are aspects of the teaching of spoken language, especially listening comprehension, where the teacher often has a relatively passive role.

Another economy aspect which has received rather little attention is the saving of student's time. In the traditional study course model students attend the course from beginning to end more or less actively depending on the sanctions attached to absenteeism. One principle of mastery learning, according to which the student works only until he has attained the skill aimed at, has been followed in language teaching to a greater extent, for example, in the course of English Reading Comprehension (Language Centre Materials 2/73) prepared in connection with the English language teaching experiment in the comprehension of scientific texts. Apart from students time the method also saves teaching resources because fewer teaching groups are needed.

It was decided that the Language Centre would try and apply the use of self-instruction and the principle of mastery learning in the teaching of listening comprehension, on which the Language Centre has already earlier carried out experiments.

The aims and implementation of the teaching experiment

The purpose of the self-instruction experiment was to find out how the application of the above principles, self-instruction and mastery learning, influences the success in and cost of the listening comprehension course. The criterion for success was the number of students who attained the objective. The course used in the experiment was the obligatory course in English listening comprehension included in the degree requirements for students of economics (at present offered educational programmes in national and regional economics and systematization) at the University of Jyväskylä. The course is arranged annually and various kinds of information have already been collected about it in connection with the teaching experiment on listening comprehension in previous years.

There were three courses to be compared: a one-term teacher-directed course, an intensive teacher-directed course and a supervised self-instructional course. The courses and the related measurements are presented in more detail in table 1. During each academic year the same tests were used in all the courses so that test 1 was the same for all courses, likewise test 2 etc. The aim of this procedure was to make sure

Table 1. Comparison of the courses

The structure of the course

	Test 1	Studies	Test 2	Studies	Test 3
Course 1 traditional one term	- at the beginning of the course - initial test - not accepted as completion of of the course independent of result	20 hours under teacher's supervision 2 hours/week during one term	- at the end of the course - accepted as completion of the course depending on test result	voluntary self-instruction for those who failed	- about two weeks after the course - accepted as completion of the course depending on result
Course 2 intensive	- at the beginning of the course - initial test - not accepted as completion of the course independent of result	20 hours under teacher's supervision 3 hours/week as intensive teaching	- at the end of the course - accepted as completion of the course depending on test result	voluntary self-instruction for those who failed	- about two weeks after the course - accepted as completion of the course depending on result
Course 3 supervised self-instruction	- at the beginning of the course - accepted as completion of the course dependent on result	general information about the course, guidance in the use of the language lab., supervised self-instruction (about 10 hours study recommended before test 2, average 2,5 hours/week)	- after the students have studied about half of the recommended course - accepted as completion of the course depending on test result	those who failed continued supervised self-instruction	- after the students have gone through the whole programme recommended - accepted as completion of the course depending on result

that the criteria for passing the course was the same throughout the year. The learning material was the same on all the courses, except that it was furnished with further instructions needed for self-instruction.

The self-instruction course

A teacher was hired to supervise the self-instruction course, and his task was to implement the course and to help students, many of whom had never worked in a language laboratory, to make a start in self-instruction. Before the course students were given information about the structure of the course and the time for the initial test. Those who passed the initial test did not have to attend the course at all, whereas the others were invited to a meeting where they were given information on the objectives of the course, working methods and practical arrangements. They were also given study guidance, and taught how to take notes, and finally they were divided into groups which were given instruction in the use of the language laboratory at times agreed upon. At the meetings arranged for the groups demonstration was given on the use of the language laboratory, and every student went through the first lesson of the course. After that the students had about a month to study the course on their own before the next test, in which they could prove that they had attained the skill required. In study guidance it was recommended that the students go through at least half of the course before the test. The students had access to two language laboratories which were open from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., in addition to which the supervising teacher had a consultation hour once a week at a given time.

Those who failed the second test were invited to a meeting where the problems that had occurred were discussed, and the students were given additional instructions to facilitate listening and note taking. After that the students had another month to study before the next test.

The outcome of the experiment

To enable a comparison of courses 1 and 2 it was decided to tend out what would have happened if the initial test used in the experiment had been accepted as a course completion test. As shown in table 2 about a third of those who started course 1 and a quarter of those who started the intensive course would have passed on the basis of the initial test alone,

Table 2. Comparison of the results of the courses

Course	Enrolled on the course	Taking the first test	Test 1		Test 2		Test 3		Students completing the course	Dropouts	Failed
			Passed/could have passed	Failed	Passed	Failed	Passed	Failed			
1 (traditional)	54	54	21	33	41	10	2	6	43	5	6
attained the objective			38%[1]		75%		80%		80%	9%	11%
2 (intensive)	66	53	13	40	37	13	3	3	40	10	3
attained the objective			24%		69%		75%		75%	19%	6%
3 (self-instruction)	106	100	34	66	27	24	15	10	76	14	10
attained the objective			34%		61%		76%		76%	14%	10%

[1] The percentages have been calculated on the basis of the number of students attending the first test

if the pass level of the initial test in the self-instructional course had been used as a criterion. This procedure would have saved the cost of running one language laboratory class. In the second test, which took place after 20 lessons in courses 1 and 2 and in the middle of the study period in the self-instructional course, the percentages of those who passed were 75, 69 and 61. After this those on course 3 who failed continued their studies. Failed students on the other courses (1 & 2) were asked to repeat the course before a follow-up test. After three tests the one-term course (1) had been completed by 80%, the intensive course (2) by 75% and the self-instructional course (3) by 76% of those who had attended the course. Thus the difference in final results is not particularly big when examined in this way. If the numbers of those who passed the course are compared with the numbers of those who enrolled but did not attend, then the differences are bigger. The proportion of students who passed out of those who enrolled was 80% in course 1, 60% in course 2 and 71% in course 3. It would seem that intensive study in particular did not suit this group. According to the replies to a questionnaire given to this was mainly due to the fact that other studies took the form of intensive courses and involved a high number of weekly lessons. This is also manifested in the fact that on the intensive course there was a higher number of dropouts, a lower attendance figure and a greater proportion of students who had to postpone the course than on the other courses. Students attended the courses as follows: course 1 an average of 17 times out of 20, course 2 about 11 times, and students in the self-instructional course had, before the second test, listened to approximately six programmes out of the ten recommended, and during the second half about seven programmes out of ten. On the other hand the intensive course was effective for those who attended the course, because only 7% of them failed at the second attempt. On other courses the proportion of those failing was 12% course 1 and 13% on course 3.

What happened on the self-instruction course

Apart from finding out what students attended the course, what students enrolled but failed to attend etc., the aim was to find out who passed the course in which test. For this purpose a comparison of some background factors was carried out between those who passed and those who failed the different tests. Because the groups were small no discrimination analysis

or other multivariate methods were used in the comparison, and only the means of the groups were compared.

Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations of the background variables under study which distinguish those who passed a test from those who failed it, in different groups. The variables included were coded as follows: length of course at school: no English at all = 0, under six years = 1, over six years = 2, mark in English and mark in Swedish in last school report: uncoded, marks in the matriculation certificate: approbatur = 2, lubenter = 4, ... etc., other English courses: number of, uncoded, length of stay in an English-speaking country: not at all = 1, less than a week = 2, 1-4 weeks = 3, 1-4 months = 4, over four months = 5, programmes listened to I: the number of programmes listened to between the initial test and the second test, uncoded, score on the initial test: uncoded, score on the vocabulary test: the score on the vocabulary test given in connection with the initial test, uncoded.

Table 3 shows the significance of the difference between those who passed and those who failed the test on variables which show a significant difference with a risk of error of less than 5%.

The results show that in the first test those who passed differed from those who failed in that they have a better mark in English, they have been more successful in the English and Swedish tests of the matriculation examination and received a better overall mark in it. In addition they have been abroad more than those who failed and their vocabulary is considerably better. In other words those who passed seem to have a good and working knowledge of the language. The outcome may seem trivial, but it shows that the multiple-choice test used for Listening Comprehension discriminates high-achievers from low-achievers in the same direction as the above measures of language skill. Thus it can be considered valid in spite of the doubts expressed about multiple-choice tests, if the above measures are regarded as criteria.

In the second test the main distinguishing factor between those who passed and those who failed turned out to be the extent of previous studies: the length of the course at school and the number of English courses outside school, as well as the amount of work done in the self-instruction course. The outcome can be interpreted to mean that those who passed had a good basic knowledge of the language, which they were able to activate with a comparatively small amount of extra work, and thus they reached the level required.

Table 3. Group means and standard deviations for some variables

Variable	test 1 failed	test 1 passed		test 2 failed	test 2 passed		test 3 failed	test 3 passed		all
4 length of course at school	1.66 .48	1.79 .42		1.60 .50	1.86 .36	F=4.31 p< 5 %	1.38 .52	1.67 .49		1.70 .46
6 mark in English	7.38 1.24	8.00 1.37	F=5.15 p< 5 %	7.05 1.64	7.54 1.07		7.63 1.51	7.75 .96		7.59 1.31
13 marks in English in the matriculation exam	6.81 2.41	7.94 2.24	F=4.73 p< 5 %	6.75 2.52	7.43 2.30		7.60 1.67	6.83 2.62		7.21 2.40
14 marks in Swedish in the matriculation exam	6.57 2.28	8.06 1.97	F=10.10 p< 1 %	6.63 2.22	6.79 2.46		7.43 1.51	6.50 2.43		7.08 2.28
17 overall mark in the matriculation exam	7.40 1.47	8.12 1.58	F=5.02 p< 5 %	7.68 1.53	7.29 1.54		8.29 1.38	7.50 1.73		7.65 1.54
18 other English courses	.41 .50	.32 .48		.21 .42	.54 .51	F=5.28 p< 5 %	.25 .46	.09 .30		.38 .49
22 stay abroad	1.25 .65	1.76 1.09	F=5.02 p< 1 %	1.22 .65	1.26 .59		1.00 .00	1.20 .63		1.43 .86
42 programmes listened to I	-	-		4.74 3.60	7.58 5.29	F=4.08 p< 5 %	5.17 3.43	5.38 3.93		6.15 4.85
44 score in the initial test				14.10 3.02	15.61 3.96		11.89 4.46	15.33 2.71	F=4.84 p< 5 %	17.36 5.45
46 vocabulary test	50.92 11.46	59.21 8.45	F=13.52 p< 1 %	48.57 8.74	55.36 13.19	F=4.17 p< 5 %	42.89 6.74	52.25 5.99	F=11.31 p< 1 %	53.71 11.21

In the third test the distinguishing factor between those who passed and those who failed was mainly the distance from the objective at the beginning of the course. Those who failed were so far from the objective that the work during the course was not enough to bring them up to the level required. Vocabulary was still the distinguishing factor between those who passed and those who failed, which would indicate that listening comprehension calls for a certain mastery of vocabulary. Since the learning objectives of this course did not specifically include the learning of new vocabulary, those who had a restricted vocabulary were not able to improve it enough.

It would thus seem that the students who benefitted most from the course were those whose language skill had got somewhat rusty, and those who were already quite near the objective. The others would obviously need more thorough teaching to improve their language skill. If the main aim of this kind of course is to activate listening comprehension skills, then the course should be placed as close as possible to the time when the skill is really needed.

Evaluation of the results

If the success of the courses is evaluated merely on the basis of how many of those who attended the course achieved the learning objective then there are no great differences between the courses. On the other hand there are differences in the number of students who enrolled to take the course but had to abandon the plan or drop out of the course, which would justify an examination of the meaningfulness of the teaching programmes and the position of language studies compared with other studies. As far as the use of teacher resources is concerned the self-instructional course is by far the most advantageous, for if all students in the three courses had been given an equal amount of teacher-directed instruction this would have involved 5-6 groups in 20 lessons per group, which equals 100-120 teaching hours, whereas now only 14 hours of the teacher's time were used in giving information and supervision. The questionnaire handed out in connection with test 2 showed that students had a very positive attitude towards self-instruction: 91 % of the respondents considered self-instruction very suitable for higher education studies, 73 % considered it a suitable form of study for them personally, and 88 % thought it was very suitable for listening comprehension. It must, however, be borne in mind

that many of the dropouts and those whom the self-instructional course did not suit at all did not attend the test and thus did not fill in the questionnaire. Ten out of the 45 respondents to the questionnaire complained of insufficient supervision during or at the beginning of the course or about the absence of a teacher. Seven students had had difficulties with the use of teaching materials or the laboratory. The results would indicate that it is worth continuing experiments applying the principles of self-instruction and mastery learning used in this experiment. The aim of further experiments should be to improve supervision during the course, and on the other hand to offer more individualized study programmes instead of giving everybody the same learning material. In the supervision of the course special attention should be paid to the overcoming of initial difficulties and to making better use of the supervising teacher during the course. It would obviously be best if the supervisor of the self-instructional course simultaneously taught the same students on another language course. Then students would meet the supervisor of the self-instructional course regularly, which would make it possible to arrange follow-up on the progress on the self-instructional course and on the other hand make it easier for the students to ask for help than if they have to see the supervisor during a separate consultation hour. The way this course was arranged students rarely took advantage of the consultation hour. In individualized study use could be made of, for example, the sound and video library system tried out at the C.R.A.P.E.L.[1] in which the student can, to fit his skills and needs, choose from among a large amount of materials what suits him best and interests him most. Then the standard teaching material package would be replaced by a recommendation, based on the initial test and possible diagnostic tests, about how many and what type of programmes and exercises each student should go through before resitting the test. Giving the student a chance to choose the topics himself would also increase motivation. On the other hand, the fact that the student has to make the choices himself might make the learning task seem less compared to a course with a fixed content, which again might make study more difficult for students who are weakly motivated and are not used to independent work. This might, however, be compensated for by intensifying supervision and by integrating the self-instructional course into the rest of language studies.

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[1] See the report by Riley and Zoppis, p. 99 below.

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P. Riley and C. Zoppis
C.R.A.P.E.L.
University of Nancy

THE SOUND AND VIDEO LIBRARY: An Interim Report on an Experiment

1. Background and Layout

When the "Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires Générales" (DEUG) was first announced by the French Ministry of Education in 1973, it appeared that some students whose curriculum had not previously included languages would be required to study one modern language. English was sure to be a favourite, and the Ministry was prepared to pay for two language laboratories of eighteen booths each which, they thought, would help provide an adequate answer to the teaching problem posed by this new public.

Our experience of language laboratories, which we think have a useful but limited part to play in the learning of a foreign language[1], together with our deeplyfelt desire to launch an experiment aimed at developing the student's capacity to teach himself, led a team from the C.R.A.P.E.L. to design and put forward a project for a Sound and Video Library. This, we thought would not only cater for the new needs created by the DEUG, but would also give all students of English an easy contact with the spoken word which they are otherwise denied, since in Nancy it is practically impossible for them to listen to any programmes broadcast by English-speaking radio stations, all far too distant. Among the possible users of the Sound and Video Library, we included students who take English as their main subject, others who take it as a subsidiary subject, and extra-mural students.

In fact, we estimated the number of potential users at about 4,000, in the event of 80 % of the total DEUG students (4,922) opting for English. By opening the projected Sound and Video Library 50 hours

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[1] See Bouillon (1971), Holec & Kuhn (1971), Riley (1974), Harding & Legras (1974).

Earlier published in Dirven, R. (ed.) (1977) Hörverständnis im Fremdsprachen Unterricht/Listening Comprehension in Foreign Language Teaching Scriptor, and printed here with the permission of the publisher.

a week, it would be possible to accommodate each student for 1 1/2 hours a week, with an average attendance of 60 students per hour, which was much more than could have been done with the two language laboratories initially proposed.

If one of our initial aims was to make sure that the Sound and Video Library would actually be able to take in all its potential users for as long as possible each week, we also wanted it to be a place where we would apply some of the pedagogical principles and strategies we firmly believe in[1]. Foremost among these was the principle of *autonomous learning* for advanced and for fairly advanced students. In our view, students who have reached a certain level in English can improve their listening comprehension, their oral expression or their written comprehension by regularly working in semi-autonomy with adequately prepared teaching material or in complete autonomy using "raw", *authentic material*[2]. For instance, frequent exposure to authentic documents over a fairly long period seems to us to be indispensable for any progress in listening comprehension, just as a frequent use of the linguistic code is absolutely necessary if one wants to make some headway in speaking a language. This type of autonomous learning presupposes the setting up of new pedagogical strategies, which complement the more traditional types.

For one thing, students must be able to find the *right kind of materials whenever they are free* and ready to use them - hence the necessity for having an abundant and varied supply of adequate materials in stock, a practical filing-system and convenient opening times (ideally the Sound and Video Library should never close). But it is also necessary to persuade students that they can be their own tutors and that the presence of a teacher "in the flesh" is not always indispensable.

Bearing in mind these pedagogical aims and the practical estimates concerning future users, we then proceeded to examine what kind of hardware would serve our purpose best, within the limits imposed by a fixed budget, and by a room which we had not chosen, and which had not been build with that particular use in view: its being on the fourth floor, for instance, is hardly an incentive for the average student unused to any strenuous exercise.

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[1] See Abe et al. (1975), Cembalo & Cremmo (1973), Cembalo & Holec (1973).

[2] See Duda et al. (1972, 1973).

For both the sound and the video sections of the library, we selected cassette recorders made by a European firm which, in 1973, had the greatest experience of this then fairly new type of equipment. Room 407 was divided into four main sections (see chart 1):

1. The entrance lobby.
2. The sound section.
3. The video section.
4. The technician's section.

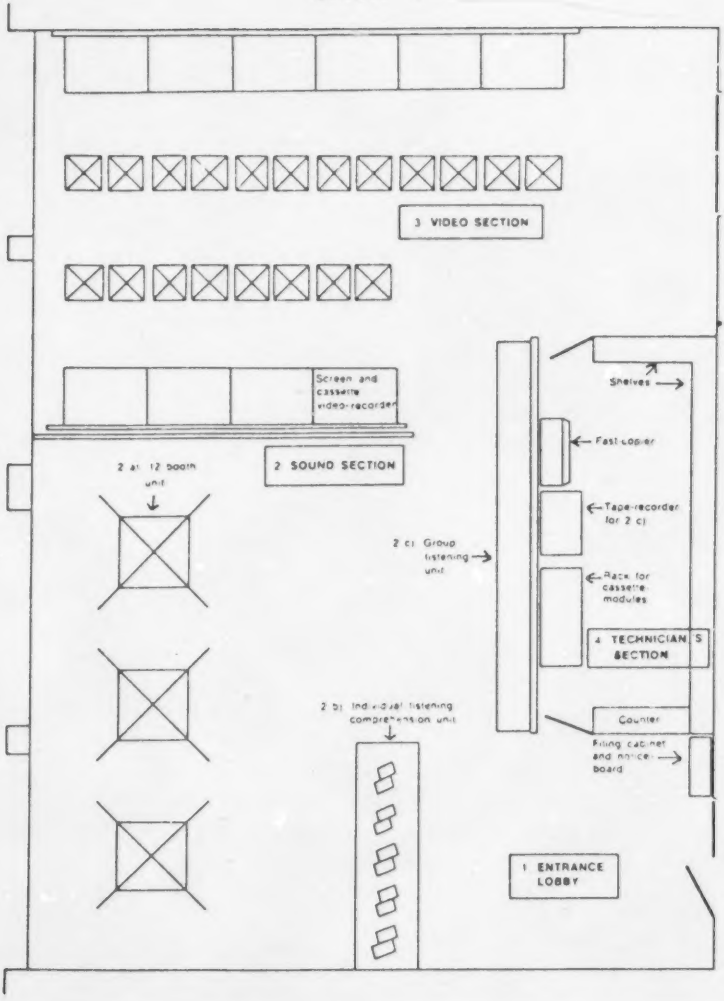
1. *The entrance lobby* is equipped with a notice board and a filing-cabinet which is the focus of the whole library.

2. *The sound section* comprises three different types of equipment:
a) 12 booths, with audio-active-comparative cassette recorders, which are meant for those materials that include oral expression exercises. Each booth can accommodate two students. There is no monitor desk. As will be seen from the diagrams, these booths are arranged in groups of four. Booths are separated from each other by sound-absorbent partitions, arranged diagonally as indicated. This has the advantage of creating enough elbow-room for two students at a time to use a booth, whilst avoiding the strictly classroom discipline of the usual linear layout.
b) 20 cassette-players, making up a listening comprehension unit. Half of these players are fixed on to a table, the other ten constitute a reserve only used when the library is very busy.
c) A listening unit, consisting of a tape-recorder, and eight earphones fixed to the wall at intervals above a long bench. The tape-recorder plays a non-stop programme meant for those students who are only free for a short period of time.

3. *The video section*
This is made up of ten video cassette recorders, each linked to a black and white TV screen. Two students can watch the same screen simultaneously, and hear the sound-track through earphones.

4. *The technician's area*, which contains:
a) Twelve cassette modules, corresponding to the twelve booths described in 2a) above. For security reasons, we thought it a better idea to have the technician feed the cassettes into the machines - which are set in a rack - rather than let the students do it themselves.
b) Shelves for the master tapes, and for a least one cassette copy of most of the documents in stock.

CHART 1


3 VIDEO SECTION
Screen and cassette video-recorder
2 SOUND SECTION
2 a) 12 booth unit
2 c) Group listening unit
Shelves
Fast copier
Tape-recorder for 2 c)
Rack for cassette modules
4 TECHNICIAN'S SECTION
Counter
Filing cabinet and notice board
2 b) Individual listening comprehension unit
1 ENTRANCE LOBBY

c) A fast-copier, used for preparing cassettes from the master tapes, either in advance or at short notice; three copies can be made simultaneously at eight times the original speed: i.e. a forty minute recording will be reproduced in five minutes.

2. Functioning

In this section, we are going to describe and discuss the procedure which a student follows when he makes a visit to the Sound Library, that is, how he goes about 1) selecting, 2) requesting and 3) using a document. (N.B. "document" is used throughout this article to include all types of material, whether written, tape-recorded or video-recorded.) All interested students are taken in groups on a detailed "guided tour" of the sound library to familiarise them with the lay-out and facilities; this is a preliminary to the methodological training which most need if they are to make the most of their work there.

2.1. *Selecting a document*

On arrival in the Sound Library, the student proceed first to the catalogue, a series of drawers containing filing cards. *The cataloguing system* has been developed to meet three main criteria: it had to be (a) practical, (b) informative and (c) cheap.

(a) *It is practical*

The cataloguing system can be understood and used by the student himself without any specialist help. Indeed, the cataloguing process itself can be carried out by an intelligent non-librarian: this was an essential characteristic, as the funds were not available for even a part-time librarian. The system itself is based on "key-words", that is, commonly used notional categories such as "Humour", "Conversation", or "Law", which are coded in a way which is immediately meaningful to the user: HUM., CONV., LAW and so on, followed by a number which simply records the order of arrival of that particular item. HUM 15, then, was the fifteenth recording to be acquisitioned by the library.

In this system, instead of starting out with a complete, encyclopaedic list of categories into which documents are sorted on arrival, we create categories in an ad hoc fashion as documents actually arrive. Obviously, such a system is considerably less detailed or refined - less systematic, in fact - than the professional librarian's taxonomies: nor does it handle the special problems of recorded materials with any particular subtlety,

leaving decisions as to who is the author of an interview, or when an interview is a discussion, to the discretion or intuition of the cataloguer rather than basing them on any objective criteria. But experience has shown that it is efficient enough for our purposes. A generous amount of cross-referencing reduces this risk of a student's missing an item completely, and the full list of key-words is always displayed prominently above the catalogue.

Below is an extract from the list of key words. It is important to remember that key-words are only created when needed, that a conceptual blank is not an omission: it simply means that no document on that particular topic has as yet been received by the library.

JRN	JOURNALISM
LANG	LANGUAGES
	- etymology
LAW	LAW
LIT	LITERATURE
	- book review
	- drama
	- essays
	- novel
	- poetry
	- Sherlock Holmes
	- short story
	- Wordsworth
MED	MEDICINE
MON	MONOLOGUE
MUS	MUSIC
	- business
	- freelance musicians
	- opera
	- quiz
NTH	NATURAL HISTORY
NR	NATURAL
	- coal
	- mining
	- oil
NEWS	NEWS
PNT	PAINTING
POL	POLITICS
	- France
	- local
	- nationalism
	- race relations
	- terrorism
PLT	POLLUTION
POP	POPULATION
PUB	PUBLIC SPEAKING
RAD	RADIO
	- children's programmes
	- comedy
	- discussion
	- drama
	- interview
	- magazine
	- series

Although the "key-words" cataloguing system can be applied to any collection of documents, this particular list applies exclusively to he contents of the Nancy Sound Library.

(b) *It is informative*

In order to help the student is his choice and to reduce the number of unnecessary, inaccurate or unsatisfactory requests, the maximum possible amount of information should be included on each filing card entered in the catalogue. This information falls under three broad headings:
(i) Information helping in the *retrieval* of the item: coding, title, etc...

(ii) Information concerning the *content* of the recording; synopsis, cross-references;
(iii) Linguistic information: spontaneity, accents, speed.
This information is presented to the student in the following way:

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">A : Author, interviewer</td><td>B : Source</td><td>C : Code</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">D : Title :
Series</td><td>E : Written document</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">F : Synopsis :</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">G : Key words - cross-references</td></tr>
<tr><td>H : Spontaneous
Non-spont</td><td rowspan="2">J : Accents</td><td rowspan="2">K : Speed</td><td>L : Length of recording</td></tr>
<tr><td>I : Archive N°</td><td>M : Date of recording</td></tr>
</table>

A: *Author or interviewer*

This heading has often to be interpreted extremely loosely ("person responsible for a recording", "leading figure or personality involved", etc....), or even to be left blank; but at other times, of course, it is of major importance.

B: *Source*

Where did the recording come from? Was it published commercially, was it made privately, was it a gift from the British Council, Voice of America or another University?

C: *Code*

See a) above.

D: *Title and series*

It is often both necessary and convenient to invent a title for a recording which does not have one. The "Series" acts as a useful further cross-reference.

E: *Written document*

If there is a written document of any kind to accompany the tape - a textbook, a transcription, a newspaper article or a script - it is marked here. The student has to request it separately.

F: *Synopsis*

What is the recording *about*? This should help the student decide whether or not it will be of interest to him, and it may also help him follow certain aspects of the recording when he listens to it.

G: *Key-words*

Cross-references to related items and headings in the catalogue which may also be of interest to the student.

H: *Spontaneous/non-spontaneous*

Is the recording "spoken prose" (i.e. someone reading aloud) or is it unrehearsed speech?

I: *Archive Number*

Of no interest to the student.

J: *Accents*

One of the main problems facing the foreign learner is the variety of British and American accents. By indicating what accents are present in any given recording, the card enables the student to choose or reject it according to his level of attainment and interests.

K: *Speed*

A rather impressionistic attempt is made here to indicate to the learner the speeds at which participants in the recording talk. Each participant is marked on a scale from 1 (very slow) to 5 (very fast) by native speakers.

Taken together, H, J and K should give the learner a reasonably clear impression of the level of linguistic difficulty presented by a particular recording. If the quality of a recording is poor, a comment to that effect is usually included under F (synopsis).

Below is an example of an entry under "CRIME":

(c) *It is cheap*

In the cataloguing system described above, no special supports, materials, or machines are required. A filing cabinet, filing cards and a typewriter are all that is necessary.

The considerable amount of work involved in listening to new tapes, summarising and describing their contents and (sometimes) transcribing the recordings is carried out by one of the young English or American "lecteurs" who work at the University each year and who each have an hour or two of this kind of work included in their duties. In addition, the library employs a secretary for a few hours each week whose main task is classifying and typing our new entries in the catalogue.

Bill Monroe Frank McGee	Voice of America	CR 10
Federal regulations to combat air hijacking Series : Crosstalk		Transcript
A discussion concerning new security measures and laws on air piracy		
CRIME : Hijacking : Travel : Air : US Law		
Spontaneous	U.S.	BM : 5 FMcG : 3	10'
299			12/1/72

2.2. *Requesting a document*

Having selected an item from the file, the student fills in a request-slip, which he hands to the technician or library assistant at the desk. The request slips provide the data for the statistics given below.

Emprunteur			Place		Cote du Document
NOM					Lottres :
PRENOM					Chiffres :
Spécialiste d'anglais	1ère année 2e année " L "	☐ ☐ ☐	Capes Agrég Enseignant	☐ ☐ ☐	DATE
DEUG 5 %	Droit Sces Eco Psycho-Socio	☐ ☐ ☐	Cours du Soir Autres	☐ ☐	Donné à h Rendu à h
Observations :					Transcription Sortie ☐ Rendue ☐

(a) If the request is for a course tape requiring student-recording facilities, the student is directed to one of the audio-active-comparative booths (2 a) on Chart 1). The technician places the cassette in the corresponding slot in the console, but the student retains complete control through the switches in his booth, even though he is physically separated from it.

(b) If the request is for a videotape, the technician himself sets the cassette in place and operates the videoscope (3. on Chart 1). Students are requested never to touch this equipment: they are less familiar with this type of machine and it is more delicate and expensive. This means that students wishing to work intensively on the language of a videotape cannot keep stopping and starting tne tape. Instead, a recording of the sound-track is also made available; having watched the document, the student moves to one of the listening posts where he is able to work on the recording as he wishes.

(c) If the request is for any other document the technician will probably have to make a cassette copy on the fast-copier while the student waits. The student takes the cassette from the technician and goes to one of the listening posts (2 b) on Chart 1), where he himself inserts it into the cassette player and operates the machine.

2.3. *Using documents*

The type of work which can be done with sound and video-cassette recordings varies greatly. Indeed, one of the main advantages of the Sound Library is that it allows users to discover their own learning techniques. Whereas in the traditional language laboratory full audio-active-comparative facilities are provided in every booth, whether the student working there needs them or not, in the Sound Library different types of equipment are provided for different types of work. For example, a student working on listening comprehension does not need recording facilities, so a simple cassette-player is enough: there are sound financial as well as pedagogical reasons for making this kind of distinction, since *one* language laboratory booth costs the equivalent of *thirty* cassette players.

The various types of work can be grouped under three main headings:

a. Listening comprehension (Sections 2.2. b) and c))
b. Oral expression (Section 2.2. a))
c. Viewing comprehension (Section 2.3.).

a) Listening comprehension

A wide range of documents is available to the learner wishing to practise this skill. By choosing between didactic and authentic materials and between recordings for which there are and are not written texts, the learner is able to vary the level and approach. In many cases, he is also able to select documents which satisfy his specialised requirement: if, for example, he is preparing to attend a learned congress, he will find

recordings of academic seminars; if he wants to be able to follow the news, he will find recordings of news-broad-casts. By working as far as possible on authentic documents relevant to his specific needs, the learner makes a more economic use of his time and reduces the gap between the learning-situation and the real-life situation for which he is preparing. Where possible, learners are shown various techniques by teachers of other courses they may be following - some kind of methodological preparation is usually necessary. In general all types of comprehension exercise which can be done in a class with a teacher can also be done by the learner working alone.

There are also specialised courses available, written by members of the C.R.A.P.E.L. (*H. Holec*: Cours de Compréhension Orale. Longman, 1975; *F. Rousset*: Cours Avancé de Compréhension Orale, 1972, C.R.A.P.E.L., Université de Nancy II).

b) Oral Expression

The library possesses a range of courses in oral expression, either commercially published, or produced by the C.R.A.P.E.L. itself. Learners work in the laboratory-type booths, recordings, repeating, listening and answering. Materials are available on specific aspects of English: phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and communicative functions. Students are guided in their choice either by their teachers in class or by the "moniteurs" who are present in the library during certain periods each week. For users not following other courses a grid classifying materials in terms of skills and levels is displayed on the notice-board.

c) Viewing comprehension

Little close study has as yet been made of viewing comprehension (though we intend to investigate this skill during the coming year). At present it is little more than an act of faith that "watching T.V. is good for you". Again, the emphasis is on authentic recordings.

Apart from the three linguistic activities mentioned above, it is worth noting that an increasing number of students are attending the library not so much to improve their English, as to find information. Students of law, economics, etc...., find up-to-date discussions of immediate relevance to their field of study, or lectures by well-known experts. Nor should we exclude from serious consideration those students who attend simply because they enjoy it, finding in Hancock's Half Hour, or American Folk Music, or Hamlet, a source of civilised entertainment.

3. Future Developments

The most immediate and obvious problem facing the Sound Library is the acquisition of further materials. Although the present collection is already fairly large (approximately 1,000 items, consisting of 40 T.V. recordings, 20 courses, and some 950 authentic documents), it is still not varied enough to meet many of the specialised needs of some of the users. Ideally, a cardiologist due to chair a conference, or a travel agent needing to speak and understand English on the phone, would find relevant authentic recordings in the library to work on. At present, our policy is to accept almost any recording we are offered, at the same time trying to obtain recordings to meet particular needs as they arise. The major institutional sources of recordings have already been tapped and to large extent we are now dependent on exchange arrangements with individuals: we can afford only a small number of commercially-published materials. T.V. and sound recordings are also regularly produced here, but it is quite impossible to get the necessary variety to satisfy all interests and needs.

A major development being considered is the establishment of a home-loan system for sound cassettes. Since large numbers of people now possess cassette recorders or players, and since the same cassette can be re-used a number of times, such a system would be quite feasible as far as the users are concerned. But it is doubtful whether the library's present copying facilities would be able to meet both internal and external demands, and it is certain that the library's present secretarial and administrative personnel would have to be increased: the one part-timer at present employed could not possibly cope.

As a first, tentative step, a home-loan system has been operated exclusively for a group of 100 extra-mural students (although only about half this number actually availed themselves of it). Although the results were in general encouraging, and the system operated smoothly, our experience is too limited to allow of further generalisation.

The Sound Library described in this article is an attempt to develop in a concrete way the pedagogical and technologic experience gained in language laboratories and classrooms during the last decade. It is itself still at the experimental stage: consequently, it is necessary to keep all aspects of the functioning of the library under close observation, hence the details required on the request-slips, for example.

We need to know how learners work under these conditions, what techniques and strategies they adopt, and what problems crop up. On the basis of the information thus acquired, it should be possible to improve the presentation of all types of documents. We also hope to establish a repertoire of working procedures which could be investigated, extended and taught to other users: such research is essential if autonomous learning schemes are to be anything more than a mixture of guess-work and do-it-yourself. Already several postgraduate students have carried out studies on specific aspects of the library and its work, and statistics have been collected on a number of topics (see below).

4. Statistics

The request slips which the students fill in are kept and at regular intervals sorted out and classified so as to obtain:

1. The figures concerning the number of requests globally and for each of the three main types of documents available (Courses - Authentic Documents - TV Programmes).
2. Attendance figures according to the day of the week and the time of day.
3. Information about what departments the students come from.

Applications (see CHART 2).

For the period from the opening in February 1975 to the end of May 1976, the statistics show a very promising and steady rise in the number of requests. The two drops in the graph correspond to two periods of reduced activity: the first concerns the summer vacations in 1975, when the Sound Library was only open two half-days a week, and the second coincides with the 1976 students' strike, during most of which it was absolutely impossible for students to enter the university buildings.

The total number of requests for 16 months is 7,644, which gives an average figure of 637 requests a month. Of course this does not mean that 7,644 different students have used the library.

These 7,644 request slips can be classified as follows:

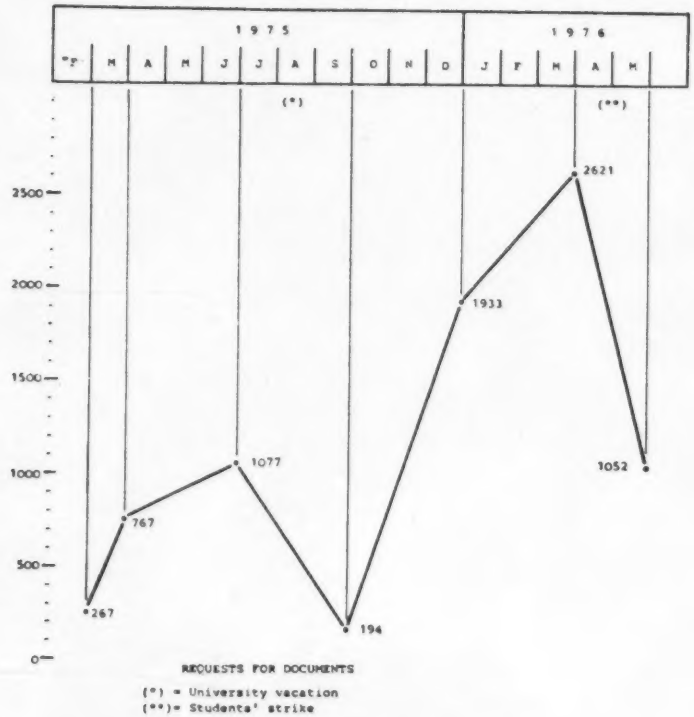
4466 applications for courses

1633 applications for TV programmes

1547 applications for sound documents

The most striking fact is the success of TV programmes, which are not very numerous but extremely popular (in fact the Library so far only possesses 40 video-recordings).

CHART 2

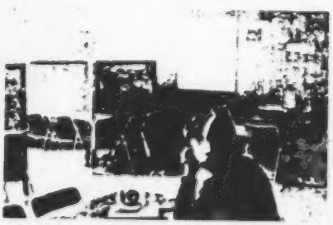


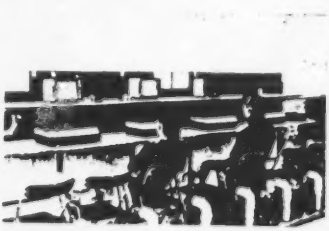
REQUESTS FOR DOCUMENTS

(*) = University vacation
(**)= Students' strike

Wednesdays, Thursdays and Tuesdays (in that order) are the busiest days of the week, and though on Monday and Friday the Sound Library does not work to its full capacity, the increasing attendance on those days is very promising.

The library is open 53 hours per week in term-time.





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David Mendelsohn
The Centre for Applied Linguistics
The Hebrew University of Jerusalem

THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY IN THE POST-AUDIOLINGUAL ERA

1. Introductory comments

The language laboratory has been a feature of the language teaching scene for many years now. In fact one could go so far as to say that it has been with us long enough for the "pendulum of enthusiasm" to have swung from extreme enthusiasm to extreme disillusionment.

From the very outset I wish to make the aim of this paper clear. It is not an attempt to answer the question: is the language laboratory a worthwhile and useful machine or not? The starting point of this paper is that numerous universities throughout the world have language laboratories, purchased during the 1960's, and these are being left to gather dust, are just not being used at all, and I aim to show that this is a mistake, that there are numerous different and very valuable uses to which the laboratory can, and should be put. As Mueller (1972: 13) puts it: "The stereotype of the laboratory as a place to relieve the 'burdens of the overworked classroom teacher' has run its course".

Disillusionment with the lab in the post-audiolingual era arises from two sources. Firstly, there are those who argue that the lab is a "drill-master" designed to serve the pattern-practice and habit-formation requirements of the audiolingual approach to foreign language teaching, and if so, there is no use for the lab today. Then there are those who have simply become disillusioned with the lab over the years, largely through misuse or even abuse of it. This attitude is often born out of ignorance of the lab's potential and limitations.

Stack's book, The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching, first published in 1960, must be seen as the volume which, more than any other, set the tone and guided people in the use of the lab in the 1960's. And Stack, on the first page of the first chapter made the following statement:

> From the outset it should be understood that the only realistic purpose of the language laboratory is to provide a convenient means of hearing and responding to audiolingual drills. (Stack 1971: 3).

It is my contention that this is a very narrow approach to the lab, and that the lab has a far greater potential than that, and it is that which this paper intends to show.

Before beginning to discuss any of the details, one point must be made clear. Several of the suggestions that are discussed could be put into effect using a tape recorder instead of a language laboratory. However, in most cases, use of a laboratory (and my basic premise is that most universities have language laboratories) will increase the flexibility and scope of the possibilities.[1]

This paper divides into three main sections:
- interest and motivation in language laboratory use - section 2;
- individual "library" work in the laboratory - section 3;
- some less conventional uses of the laboratory - section 4.

2. Interest and motivation in language laboratory use

This question has to be handled from two different sides: the interest and motivation of the teachers, technicians and language laboratory director; and the interest and motivation of the learners.

2.1 Interest and motivation of teachers, technicians and laboratory director

Mueller (1972: 16) claims:

> Perhaps the greatest criticism which can be levelled against the use of the laboratory is the lack of real concern on the part of teaching staff for the functions and purposes the lab can perform.

There is a great deal of truth in this, but part of the lack of interest of the teaching staff must be blamed on the language laboratory staff, and the director in particular - after all, this is his particular job, while the average language teacher has innumerable other problems to solve without directing the laboratory for the director. The director should all the time be in touch with the different language departments and keep them informed of new materials and ideas that are being developed for the lab. He should not wait for the language department to approach him - he should approach and encourage them. He should be there to help and advise departments on the different aspects of the laboratory, both

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1) For an example, see section 4.4.

on matters concerning teaching and on material preparation. He is the person who is ultimately responsible for the smooth running of the lab, and if the lab is not kept in good running order, and teachers are subjected to regular technical breakdowns, they will very soon prefer to have nothing to do with the laboratory.

Interest on the part of the staff also depends on their believing that the lab will be beneficial to their pupils, and that there is suitable interesting and varied material available for their use. This, too, is to a large extent the responsibility of the director, to hold refresher courses and meetings in the lab to keep teachers informed, and to keep up with what is being published around the world for use in the laboratory. At this point it is worth mentioning the importance of the materials being interesting and humorous, where possible.

2.2. Interest and motivation of learners

If a university is to make successful use of its language laboratory, maintaining the interest and enthusiasm of the learner is of paramount importance. With all the will in the world on the part of the laboratory staff, the lab will very quickly fall into disuse if interest is allowed to wane. There has to be a large amount of material at each level, i.e. it is essential that there be parallel courses drilling the same thing at the same level, because it is unreasonable to ask of the student to go over and over the same tape. This is a point often overlooked in the language labs, and often it is assumed that as far as quantity of material is concerned, the only important thing is that there be materials at many different levels.

Note must be taken of what activities students like and dislike in the lab. Smith and Hocking (1969: 51), quoting a study by Smith and Littlefield (1967) on student attitudes to different activities in the laboratory, state the following:

> Students most enjoyed working with tape-recorded dialogue practice: the least popular activity was practice with drills.

This is most important and cannot be ignored. This leads to the question of creative lab work as opposed to pattern-drill work. Smith and Littlefield's findings are not in the least surprising, and this attitude has been expressed over and over again by students in language labs all over the world. One very simple way to improve this situation is to use the dialogue much more in lab lessons, as a replacement for the "listen and

respond by individual" format so commonly followed. Rienert (1969) develops this idea in his article, and suggests having small groups of students recording dialogues together.

At a more advanced level, students could be asked to modify model dialogues they heard on tape. These dialogues could then be played to the whole class, and this would be a very valuable activity:

> If it be true that it is easier 'to see the mote in thy brother's eye than the beam in thine own', the other members of the class may very well become aware of their own speech patterns more quickly by listening to others critically than by listening to themselves.[1]
>
> (Rienert 1969: 60)

Another question directly connected with the question of interest in the lab is that of the attention given to the learner. Students' interest has been found to vary in direct proportion to the attention which they are given in the lab, and the ready availability of the material they require. These findings were confirmed in a study by Mueller (1972). The laboratory staff is there to serve the users of the lab, be they teachers or students, and material should always be available for students at times suitable to them. This issue, of attention given to the student, links directly with the next major section of this paper which deals with individualised work in the laboratory.

3. Individual "library" work

In some respects, this is the most important question that I wish to discuss in this paper. It is difficult to understand that many universities have allowed their labs to fall into disuse, when it is possible to use the lab for individual work in precisely the same way as a library of books is used. At The Hebrew University we have built up a fairly large collection of material, from many different sources in the following 15 languages: English, Hebrew, French, Chinese, Japanese, Persian, Russian, Arabic, Spanish, Portuguese, German, Shona, Hausa, Italian and Swahili. The language lab serves the entire university, irrespective of whether the student is studying a language for credit or is simply working on his own - he may be planning on going abroad and wish to improve his listening comprehension ability for example. Where a particular lab course is accompanied by a text-book, a copy of the necessary book is also available in the lab.

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1) This relates also to the ideas discussed in section 4.4 below.

The laboratories are open for individual use many hours per week. The system employed is that all hours of the day between 8.00 a.m. and 7.00 p.m., in which there is a laboratory not in use for a regular scheduled class, are automatically time-tabled as "library" hours i.e. hours for individual work. Over the years this has become known at the university, and at present it would be true to say that although there are never a lot of students studying at any one time, there are almost always a few people working in the laboratory.

Making the lab available for individual use is very important. However, there remains the problem of supervision and monitoring of these students - after all, machines have distinct limitations, and this poses a problem. Rienert (1969: 57), quotes Norbert Weiner who said the following on this point:

> The great weakness of the machine ... is that it cannot yet take into account the vast range of probability that characterizes the human situation.

Attention to the student has already been mentioned in section 2.2, and here the term 'attention' will be expanded to include the very important question of supervision and monitoring in the lab by a language teacher or tutor. Usually, if hours are made available for individual work in a laboratory, these are organized by an administrative or technical person and not by a language teacher.[1]

What I wish to propose is a situation in which language teachers or tutors will be present during library hours and not only for group lessons scheduled in the laboratory. This is a costly and complicated system to enforce, but it is worth doing. The extra cost involved is the difference in pay between what the non-teacher in charge of the lab during these hours is paid and what it would cost to employ a teacher instead. I do not believe it is necessary to have two people present - the teacher can handle the administrative-technical matters as well. The time-tabling of such a plan is somewhat complicated since tutors in the different languages would only be available at certain specific hours. However, there is bound to be enough room in the laboratory for students not availing themselves of the tuition to use the remaining booths at the same time.

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1) To date this is the situation at The Hebrew University, but it is hoped that supervision will be made available during library hours in the near future.

The question to be answered before introducing such a scheme is: what is to be gained by it, and why not leave the situation as it is with supervision in scheduled language lessons in the lab, and unsupervised library hours? Surely it could be argued that the correct answer or form is recorded on the tape precisely in order to make supervision unnecessary.

The problem with unsupervised work is first and foremost that we are dependent on the powers of discrimination and judgment of the student himself, and can we really rely on this? Rivers, as early as 1964 talks of the essentiality of immediate supervision, particularly in sound discrimination and production, i.e. in pronunciation practice, "if much incorrect pronunciation is not to be indorsed by inner approval on the part of the student himself, long before it has reached a stage acceptable to the teacher". (Rivers 1964: 156). It is ironic that it is this type of drilling which is so often left to the library hour, and class sessions are usually devoted to such things as structure drills which might be a little more complicated in format, but are so much easier to monitor by the student himself.

Bauer (1964) examined the importance of supervision in the laboratory. Although he compared supervised group work with unsupervised individual work, and the comparison made here is between supervised and unsupervised individual work (which would be additional to supervised group work), several of his comments are useful and relevant to our discussion. The two major reasons he found for the supervised work being better than the unsupervised were that an instructor was available to answer students' questions, and under supervision the students were found to concentrate more and work harder. He also mentions that the presence of the teacher gave the weaker students a greater feeling of security and stability. If library work is considered one of the major values of a laboratory to a university, then monitored library work will, for reasons discussed above, be even more valuable.

4. Some less conventional uses of the laboratory.

4.1. Uncontrolled free speech practice

It is argued in much of the traditional literature on language labs that the lab is unsuitable for uncontrolled free speech practice. My experience has shown that a teacher can derive a great deal of benefit

from the lab in such lessons. There is much to be learnt from group assessment of one pupil's efforts, in addition to the possibility of self criticism and evaluation after a piece of work has been recorded.

To give a concrete example from a course in which the aim is to improve the oral composition of advanced pupils: after all the pupils have prepared (and practiced with or without recording their efforts - see section 4.3 below), they are asked all to record their efforts. While this is being done, without the pupils knowing who, the teacher records one of the pupils concurrently on the master tape recorder, and this pupil's work is then used for group assessment.

4.2. Reading Comprehension

The standard texts on the use of language laboratories talk of the lab being of use for the aural-oral skills, and they usually hasten to clarify that the lab is not useful for practice in the skills of reading comprehension and composition writing. In this section and the one that follows, I shall attempt to show that the lab may also be effectively used for these two skills.

When talking of using the laboratory for reading comprehension, I wish to base myself on the very excellent work of Michael Toben and his colleagues at Bar Ilan University, Israel.[1]

The laboratory is used at Bar Ilan University in advanced courses in reading comprehension in social science, humanities and natural science for students in these Faculties (i.e. not majoring in English). The aim of this course is to train the students to handle the language of their text-books, most of which at Israeli universities are in English.

The student studies four hours per week, one of which is held in the laboratory:

> The weekly hour in the laboratory is devoted to the close examination of passages generally drawn directly from the actual text books or manuals the student is required to study.
>
> (Toben 1970: 32).

The course is audio visual, and taped recordings of the parts of the texts being considered are accompanied by slides of the written text.[2]

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1) The details for this section are based both on Toben's article published in 1970, and on recent personal communications with Toben.

2) Since 1970, overhead projector transparencies have been replaced by slides.

The course is divided into three phases, the third of which attempts to create conditions as close to those the student will be faced with in reality, as possible. In Phase One, the student hears and concurrently reads a popular text from his field, after which he answers questions on the text and further questions on the diagram which accompanies the text. These questions are all brief, simple and straightforward. Answers to the questions are provided on the tape. A week prior to the lesson, the student will have been given a glossary of difficult words from the text, and after the comprehension questions, he does a vocabulary test. Students do six Phase One lessons, i.e. Phase One lasts for six weeks.

In Phase Two, the student works on a 250-word text, "selected directly from text-books, or articles that the various departments recommend". (Toben 1970: 34). The passage is divided up into 5 sections: the student sees the section on the screen, hears it read and is then given a measured time to study it. This is followed by 2 true/false questions, and this process is repeated until the whole passage has been completed. The student is then given 1 1/2 - 2 minutes to study the whole text silently. He then has to answer 10 sentence-completion comprehension questions with the correct answers provided on the tape. Finally the student is shown a short passage based on the facts in the text, "using structures that appear in the text but nevertheless an original passage". (Toben 1970: 34).

It will be noted that the student is not only being trained in the comprehension of a reading passage similar in level and content to what he will be required to read for his course work, but he is also being forced to work at a reasonably fast pace. This is an essential part of the training of the student, since several students have been found to abandon their reading, not because it is too difficult, but because of the inordinate time it takes them. Toben (1970: 34) explains this as follows:

> The thinking then, behind the timing in Phase Two was to force the student to accustom himself to a far greater pace than he had let himself get used to. We assumed that it takes the average 6th former a minute to read 250 words of a general non-specialised text. This we used as a general guide. We decided for technical English we should aim at 125 words a minute. If this could be reached then the student's language could have practical application.

In Phase Three the texts are of 800 - 900 words in length. First the student works on the text in four sections and answers a few questions after each section. Then he hears the whole passage again and answers 5 multiple-choice questions on it, this time following the printed text on a sheet in front of him. Finally he is given a very broad question

to answer. Unlike all the previous questions, here he is not at all guided, and the questions take the form of making notes on some of the main points, or summarising parts of the text. The student knows what the final "broad" question is before he hears the final reading of the passage, so that he can bear it in mind and be ready to answer it immediately after answering the multiple-choice questions.

This system has been found to be effective and is also well liked by the students, despite their initial "panic" over the speed with which they are required to work.

4.3. Composition writing

I have not tried this use of the laboratory, but I wish to report on an experiment by Davis (1975). In this experiment, a course in composition writing was held in the language laboratory. The laboratory was used to encourage the students to "talk their writing" (Davis 1975: 18) and the model for the lessons, as Davis puts it was "think - talk - write". Davis reports that most of the students felt that the recorder was a valuable tool in helping them with their writing. The following is the break-down of the way in which the different students chose to make use of the laboratory facilities: 10 out of 25 used the recorder to "proofread" their writing, 5 to revise work, 5 to actually compose their writing, 1 to organize his ideas, and 6 said it was mainly used for "ego-id" dialogue ("interior monologues primarily for self" - Davis 1975: 17). The diversified uses of the recorder listed above are made possible by the flexibility offered the student by the language laboratory, and are indeed an interesting innovation.

4.4. Inter-genre language teaching

In this section I wish to report on an extremely exciting experiment carried out in the teaching of German by Conner (1975) at the University of Nebraska, Omaha. Conner's work was what he called an "inter-genre experiment using the tape recorder". The use that was made of the tape recorder was not in itself innovative. The exciting innovation is in the conception of the course as a whole, and as such is whorthy of comment here. [1]

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1) This work is particularly relevant for proficiency course in English as part of the studies of English majors at The Hebrew University.

In a proficiency course in German intended as "an adjunct to the text-book material" (Conner 1975: 19), the students read Wolfgang Borchert's short story "Das Brot", re-wrote it as a radio play, and recorded it on tape. In order to achieve this aim a seven-stage procedure was followed:

(i) a through reading of the story;

(ii) a discussion of the story (held in German);

(iii) a consideration of the literary genres of the short story and the radio play;

(iv) the planning of the mechanics of the project - deciding which parts of the story should be conveyed as dialogue, which should be said by the narrator, what sound-effects should be used, etc.;

(v) the writing of the script - done jointly by the students without the teacher's assistance;

(vi) the re-writing of the script;

(vii) the recording of the play.

Conner (1975: 24) reports that the experiment was successful - the students who took part not only felt that it was a unique learning experience but "on an end of semester examination, their scores were comparable to those enrolled in the regular course".

The advantages to be gained from this approach are as follows:

(i) Motivation was far higher than in regular proficiency courses.

(ii) Extensive oral practice was possible:

> The students had to become aware of voice modulation, stress patterns and fluency in addition to pronunciation. By listening critically to their own voices and to voices of their classmates on tape they were able to improve their oral expression markedly in succeeding taping sessions. (Conner 1975: 21).

(iii) Aural comprehension was practised particularly in the part of the course before the script was complete.

(iv) Reading with extreme care was practised in preparation for the textual adaptation.

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since we are forever faced with the problem of integrating our proficiency programme with the student's literature studies in such a way that the proficiency work will become more meaningful and directly applicable to his studies, and an experiment similar to that of Conner is to be proposed shortly.

(v) There was extensive practice in writing, using Borchert's original as a model. The student had to concentrate not only on producing correct German, but also on the mood and style of the original work.

(vi) They became familiar with two literary genres and came to appreciate the story "as a work of art, not as something that had to be read by the next class meeting". (Conner 1975: 22).

This experiment, which is well worth replicating, was carried out with the aid not of a language laboratory, but of a tape recorder. This is a classic case in which the laboratory could be used in place of the simple recorder particularly for the preparatory discussion (stages ii and iii above),[1] planning of the script (stage iv) and for preparing the recording (stage vii).[2]

4.5. Teaching dead languages

Traditionally the language laboratory has been seen as a tool of assistance in working only with living languages, particularly concentrating on the aural-oral skills. Whitaker (1976) reports on a very interesting application of the lab for university Classics courses at Southampton University.[3] The lab is made use of in the following ways:

(i) Interpretive reading. While Latin and Ancient Greek are dead languages, "as one reads them in a book, the sounds and cadences are bound to be brought to life in the imagination" (Whitaker (1976: 23). Whitaker concedes the difficulties of not being sure what the pitch and cadences are, but argues:

> ... The laboratory is the ideal way to make a beginning in understanding the language without translating them, simply by hearing them expressively read and then reading them aloud.

This is indeed a wecome breath of vitality for one who was subjected to code-cracking grammar-translation lessons in Latin!

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1) See section 4.1. on the use of the language laboratory in free speech practice.

2) See my comments in section 1 on the language laboratory as an alternative to the simple tape recorder.

3) Fairly similar work has begun on Classical Chinese at The Hebrew University, but to date it is not nearly so comprehensive as that described by Whitaker.

Whitaker explains that to begin with very few phrases will be comprehensible, but with practice this improves, and trains the student to concentrate attention on meaning as a whole. This is why, argues Whitaker (1976: 24), "it can be a positive help in speeding up comprehension".

(ii) Tape-assisted translation. Students are required in addition to their regular textual translation work, to make a translation of a passage recorded in the lab. Note that this is not a listening comprehension task, but a translation task with the aid of a recording of the text. The advantages of such an approach are: "the characteristics of authors' styles become more quickly familiar ..., authors who seem difficult 'visually' are often much simpler 'aurally', ... a language laboratory treatment can lead to a higher level of appreciation". (Whitaker 1976: 25).

(iii) Phrase commentary. The study of classical texts always poses the problem of how to help with a text which is being studied in detail without holding up work on interpretation. Whitaker (1976: 25) used the laboratory one hour per week to help solve this problem:

> This takes the form of an elegant translation ... of difficult phrases; to catch the exact sense in English ... This 'phrase commentary' covers all the author's work which has been selected for study, and sets free the other hours for concentrating on the subject matter.

There are several facets of the use of the laboratory in Classics courses which tie up with, and make use of procedures known from other courses, but Whitaker must be applauded for emphasizing the potential of the laboratory even for the teaching of dead languages.

4.6. Phonetics

The language laboratory is very useful in the teaching of phonetics, and phonetic transcription in particular.[1] Students not only use the lab at their own pace for ear training and practising transcribing speech of different kinds, but the lab can also be used for phonetic production practice in the same way as it is used for pronunciation practice.

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1) At The Hebrew University the laboratory has been used for this purpose for several years.

4.7. Musicology

While it makes eminent sense to make use of the language laboratory in Musicology courses, this is a fairly new departure at The Hebrew University, and I have not come across reference to other labs being used for this purpose.

The Musicology department makes use of the laboratory in a way which is not in itself innovative - here, as in certain other sections above, the innovation is not in the method, but in the use of the lab by such a department. The lab is used both as a very convenient listening facility, (often while following the score) and in addition tapes have been prepared for active practice by students of the department. The drills are basically the same as those used in the language classes in the laboratory, and take the form of listen - repeat (i.e. imitate) - listen to reinforcement. The material, consisting of 11 tapes, trains the student in listening to and imitating musical components i.e. intervals, scales, chords, functional harmony, and meter and rhythm. When the student is working on chords, for example, he first hears the chords as a whole and he then hears and imitates (sings) one part of the chord after another. This work has been found to be most helpful for students.

4.8. Political Science and International Relations

Finally I wish to report on a very novel use that has been made of the language laboratory at The Hebrew University a few times. Simulation-games were held in the laboratory. For example, there was a simulation of a many-nation summit conference. This was held in the language laboratory because of the facility of groups being able to communicate with each other and with whoever is at the console without other groups (delegations) being able to hear what is being said.

5. Concluding comments

I have attempted in this paper to show that there is a great deal to be gained from exploiting the language laboratory, and that a blind rejection of it today is as narrow an approach as a blind rejection of it was when the language laboratory first became popular.

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1) National Association of Language Laboratory Directors.